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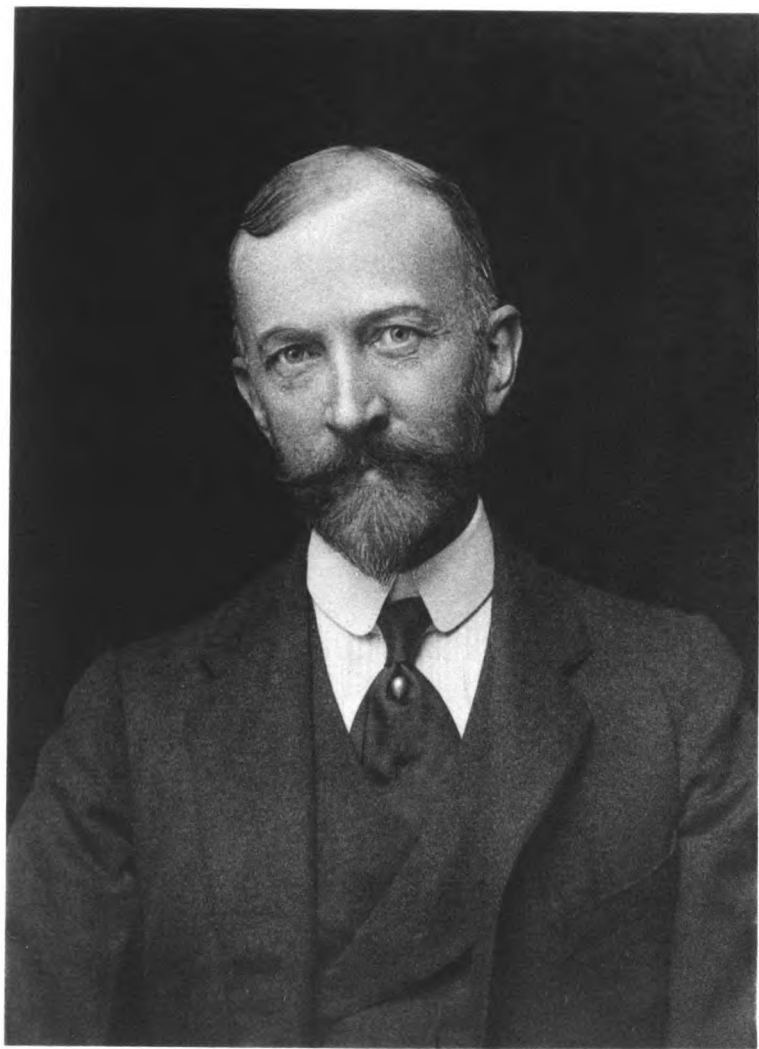
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THIRD NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE  
OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.







*Mr. R. Stewart*

*1902.*





PROCEEDINGS  
OF THE  
NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE  
OF  
CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

122103

AT THE

THIRD ANNUAL SESSION,

HELD IN

ALBANY, NOVEMBER 18, 19 AND 20, 1902.

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ALBANY:  
THE ARGUS COMPANY, PRINTERS  
1903



## PREFACE.

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The Third New York State Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Albany, November 18, 19 and 20, 1903, the president being Hon. William Rhinelanders Stewart, President of the State Board of Charities.

There was a large attendance of men and women, representing the public and private charitable and correctional institutions of the State, 334 delegates having registered during the session of the Conference.

The Fourth Conference is to be held in Buffalo, on November 17, 18, 19 and 20, 1903, under the presidency of Thomas M. Mulry, President of the Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul.

NEW YORK, *January*, 1903.



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# ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFERENCE.

## OFFICERS OF THE CONFERENCE.

### PRESIDENT.

WILLIAM RHINELANDER STEWART, New York.

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Rev. CAMERON J. DAVIS, Buffalo.

### SECRETARY.

EDWARD T. DEVINE, New York.

### ASSISTANT SECRETARIES.

Miss MARION I. MOORE, Buffalo.      Mrs. JAMES M. BELDEN, Syracuse  
PAUL U. KELLOGG, New York.

### TREASURER.

FRANK TUCKER, New York.

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Hon. Wm. P. Letchworth (ex-President of the Conference), Portage.      Thomas M. Mulry, New York.  
Robert W. de Forest (ex-President of the Conference), New York.      Robert W. Hebbard, Albany.  
Lee K. Frankel, New York.      William G. Rice, Albany.  
George F. Canfield, New York.  
Frank Tucker, New York.

### COMMITTEES ON TOPICS.

#### COMMITTEE ON CARE AND RELIEF OF NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

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Dennis McCarthy, Syracuse.      R. C. Baker, New York.  
Charles D. Kellogg, New York.      Rev. S. H. Bishop, Brooklyn.  
John R. Washburn, Watertown.      Nathan Bijur, New York.  
John J. Fitzgerald, New York.      Miss Maria M. Love, Buffalo.  
Mrs. Herbert P. Bissell, Buffalo.      Charles Stern, Rochester.  
Rabbi Israel Aaron, Buffalo.

#### COMMITTEE ON DEPENDENT, NEGLECTED, DELINQUENT, AND DEFECTIVE CHILDREN.

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F. E. Bauer, New York.      Walter S. Ufford, Albany.  
Homer Folks, New York.      Edgar J. Levey, New York.  
John E. Pound, Lockport.      Dr. Charles F. McKenna, New York.  
Rev. Max Landsberg, Rochester.      Mrs. C. B. McGinnis, New York.  
Rev. T. L. Kinkead, Peekskill.      Edward J. Hussey, Albany.  
C. Loring Brace, New York.      Frederic Almy, Buffalo.  
Rev. T. F. Hickey, Rochester.      J. H. Hamilton, Syracuse.  
Mornay Williams, New York.

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### COMMITTEE ON THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE.

*Chairman*, Prof. George F. Canfield, New York.

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T. E. McGarr, Albany.

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Myles Tierney, New York.	D. C. Grunder, Angelica.
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Cyrus C. Lathrop, Albany.	M. J. Drummond, New York.
Levi A. Page, Seneca Castle.	Mrs. Ellen M. Putnam, Oxford.

Mrs. Sarah H. Knichling, New York.

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Anslay Wilcox, Buffalo.	George McAneny, New York.
William Church Osborn, New York.	Joseph T. Alling, Rochester.

John W. Keller, New York.

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### COMMITTEE ON GENERAL TOPICS.

#### *The Executive Committee.*

#### LOCAL RECEPTION COMMITTEE.

Mrs. J. V. L. Pruyn.	Rev. Dr. W. M. Brundage.
Mrs. John G. Myers.	Charles H. Gaus.
Mrs. William L. Learned.	Dr. A. Vander Veer.
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Mrs. Charles Tracey.	Robert C. Pruyn.
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Rev. Dr. Abner H. Lucas.	Edward J. Hussey.
Rev. Dr. Max Schlesinger.	

S. W. Rosendale, *Chairman.*



# The Third New York State Conference of Charities and Correction.

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## FIRST SESSION.

*Tuesday, November 18, 1902.*

The third New York State Conference of Charities and Correction was called to order in the Senate Chamber, the Capitol, Albany, N. Y., at 8 p. m., Tuesday, November 18, 1902, by Hon. William Rhinelander Stewart, President of the Conference.

*Ladies and Gentlemen.*—The third New York State Conference of Charities and Correction will please come to order. The proceedings will be opened with prayer by the Rt. Rev. Thomas M. A. Burke, D. D., of Albany.

## PRAYER.

In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost. Amen.

Oh, Almighty and Eternal God, we beseech Thee to look down with the eyes of mercy upon Thy servants, who are here to-night assembled to deliberate upon important matters pleasing to Thee. Thou art our beneficent Heavenly Father, who maketh "Thy sun to shine upon the just and the unjust, and to rain upon the good and the bad." Thou art our Heavenly Father, who hath taught us that what we do for the least of our brethren is done for Thee, and that a cup of cold water given in the name of a disciple shall not be without its reward in Heaven. Thou art our beneficent Father who not alone provideth for the wants of men, made in Thy image and likeness, but Thou likewise provideth even for the irrational animals. Thou feedeth the ravens, Thou watcheth over the sparrows, so

that not one of them can fall to the ground without Thy knowledge and permission. "They look to Thee and when Thou openeth Thy hands, they are filled with good."

Thy servants, O Lord, are assembled to deliberate not about the promoting of their own personal interests nor to devise schemes for the accumulating of wealth. They have convened, on the contrary, to consult as to the best means of relieving the necessities of the needy and distressed, and of providing for the maintenance and the protection of the orphan and the fatherless. They desire also to devise measures for the correction of unfortunates who have violated the laws, so that they may not be subjected merely to vindictive punishment, but that they may be reformed, raised up and be again restored to self-respect and the society of their fellow-men.

We, therefore, beseech Thee so to bless the deliberations of Thy servants that they may devise means that shall tend to the promotion of these humane measures, and that their deliberations may result in the alleviation of suffering humanity, in the uplifting of the depressed and distressed and in the general happiness of the unfortunate.

We beseech Thee, Almighty God, to bless our nation, to bless our State, to bless our city and to bless those who are deliberating to alleviate the sufferings and the wants of their poor brethren and to provide for their happiness so that they may receive reward from Thee, who art the Lover of the poor and Father of orphans.

Our Father, who art in heaven, hallowed be Thy name, Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done on earth as it is in heaven. Give us this day our daily bread, and forgive us our trespasses as we forgive them that trespass against us, and lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil. Amen.

PRESIDENT STEWART.—In the absence of the Governor, I have the honor to present to the Conference the Hon. John T. McDonough, Secretary of State, who will welcome the delegates to the Conference on behalf of the State.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME BY HON. JOHN T. McDONOUGH,  
SECRETARY OF STATE.

*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen.*—As a State officer and personally I take great pleasure in extending a hearty welcome to the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction. During all the years of the existence of your association, your work has been so beneficial, so praiseworthy and so effective as to win the good will of every resident of our great State who loves his fellow-men. Through you and through your efforts the hungry have been fed, the naked clothed, the thirsty given drink, the harborless harbored, the sick and the prisoner visited, and the dead buried. Without pay and without the expectation of personal advancement or benefit you have given comfort and happiness to the lame and the blind, to the widow and the orphan, to the aged and the sick. You have wiped away the tears of the afflicted, relieved the sufferings of those in want, and rescued the young from lives of misery and shame. What dearer duty to a noble soul than to work in such a great cause and for such desirable results? And yet of the great multitude of people who are able to do so, how few give time or thought or personal attention to such work as yours? How few of these turn aside from the mad strife for wealth and station to give consideration to the condition of their less fortunate brethren?

And because of this very fact—because of the small minority who seek opportunities and occasions to lend a helping hand to the submerged classes, you who stop and look and listen and act deserve all the more praise and reward. And you have and shall have your reward—not only that of the hereafter which is promised to the just and the faithful, but that which is fully and freely given here—the blessings of the poor, the love of your neighbors, and the good name, which is better than riches.

A few weeks ago I, as Secretary of State, attested a paper certifying that one of your earnest members, William Rhineland Steward, had served continuously for a period of twenty years as a member of the State Board of Charities. I venture to say that Mr. Steward is prouder of that splendid record of

public service in the cause of charity than of any other work of his life, and I am sure the people who know something of the great services he has rendered the State and the public think more of him and his work than they do of the achievements of the greatest of the "captains of industry" in the financial world. If "the evil that men do lives after them" so does the good, especially if it be in the cause of charity, and it often happens that the record of that well-doing is handed down as a precious heritage to be emulated generation after generation. Even the names of the humble and the lowly come down to us from the distant past, associated with works of mercy and charity and benevolence. The deeds of that plain, pure man, St. Vincent de Paul, are known and honored throughout the charitable world to-day, although he labored among the poor, the outcasts and the galley slaves three and a half centuries ago.

And while we all have the name of Vincent on the tip of the tongue and revere his memory, how few of us can recall the names of the proud monarchs of France who ruled in those distant days, the great generals who commanded her armies, or the purse-proud bankers who managed her treasury. In conclusion permit me to wish you success in the proceedings of your convention, and to express the hope that you may be honored and rewarded as was St. Vincent de Paul.

PRESIDENT STEWART.—I have the honor to present next to the Conference the mayor of Albany, the Hon. Charles H. Gaus, who will welcome the delegates to the Conference for the city of Albany.

#### ADDRESS OF WELCOME BY THE HON. CHARLES H. GAUS, MAYOR OF ALBANY.

*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen.*—In the name and on behalf of the citizens of Albany, I have the distinguished honor to extend to you a cordial welcome to our city. I believe that I voice the sentiment of all Albanians, when I say that I hope the deliberations of this Conference may result in rapid strides forward in the peculiar governmental and philanthropic activities that you represent.

Gatherings like this one, where are met together men and women from almost every city, village and hamlet in our State, actuated by one common, noble purpose, cause one to stop a moment and consider the age in which he is privileged to live — how man-made barriers are being broken down and class distinctions wiped out, and how men and women with their eyes set on a fixed goal are touching elbows in their common work and are learning from each other's experience how best to attain the desired end! In this gathering you are met on one plane. You are here to confer, to exchange thoughts. You hope to benefit yourselves as workers, the institutions or city or county you represent, and in the end the great commonwealth of New York, her citizens of to-day and her future generations. All citizens are interested in this meeting. I believe it was Pope who wrote:

"In Faith and Hope the world will disagree,  
But all mankind's concern is Charity."

The spirit of charity, history teaches us, has shown the effect of its powerful influence on men's hearts and minds in many peculiar ways, but with them we have nothing to do to-night. We are concerned with the practical — with what the State already has done in the enactment of laws governing charitable and correctional institutions, and with what it may do further to promote the best interests of its citizens in this regard. We are interested in what philanthropic individuals and various societies of whatever name, have done, and what they hope to do. In other words, we are all of one mind in our desire for advancement.

Of the great good accomplished by our State's charitable and correctional institutions we are justly proud. We want to progress in this work.

I am especially well pleased with our local department of charities and correction. While the officials have much to contend with, and a great deal to try their patience, still I know that they are discharging their duty to the public in the proper manner and in the proper spirit.

But I was not asked to make an address. I was invited to welcome you to our good old city of Albany, and I do so most

heartily. I know some of you personally, and very many of you by reputation. I know the work that has been done by all of you, and it bespeaks larger fields of activity and a greater usefulness. I consider your presence here an honor to our municipality.

Following a time-honored custom, I grant you the freedom of our city. It is my most sincere wish that your stay among us may be both pleasant and profitable, and that after you have left us you may have happy recollections of the time spent here. I thank you for your kind attention. [Applause.]

PRESIDENT STEWART.—The Conference will next listen to an address by the Rt. Rev. William Croswell Doane of Albany, whom I have the honor to present to the Conference.

ADDRESS BY THE RT. REV. WILLIAM CROSWELL  
DOANE, D. D., LL. D.

*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen.*—I am left to-night in a position, which I think is more dangerous perhaps to you than it is to me. The two distinguished persons whom I was called upon to follow—I supposed one was to have been my Governor, whom I am always very glad to follow, at any rate, in order, and in a good many other things beside, and the mayor under whose gentle rule I am very glad to exercise the privileges of a citizen of Albany—have been somewhat limited in the topics they were called to speak to to-night, while I am left at large.

*Omnibus rebus et quibusdam aliis.*—I promise to leave the *omnibus rebus* out, but I want to speak to the *et quibusdam aliis*, and to transmit one or two thoughts which I have great pleasure in asking you to share with me, claiming for them no originality, but trusting you may find in them some applicability to the Conference.

On first superficial glance, the merest sentimental view, it might readily appear indeed that these two words, charities and correction, stand in most contradictory relations to each other, that they are almost a contradiction in terms, that they are things antagonistic in their meaning. But really and truly they

are complementary terms, one to the other. My mind went back, when I first read the title of the Conference to which I have had the honor of being asked to speak, to that exquisite sentence in the book of the wisdom of Solomon, which I have had written out in my school, St. Agnes, in big letters on the wall, "The very true beginning of wisdom is the desire of discipline and the care of discipline is love." A mere change of phraseology, love and discipline, charities and correction. We may well follow, I think, the example of the wise man who believed that the beginning of our wisdom is in the study of these two great social subjects in their complementary relations to each other.

First of all, I am quite free to say that our charities need correction. You know as well as I do that there is no more harmful indulgence than the easy-going, good natured habit of an indiscriminate exercise of what is miscalled charity, the tossing of a penny to get rid of the importunities of the beggar. I think it is equally true of institutions, that if they are attempted to be run merely upon principles of sentimentalism, they are absolutely injurious instead of helpful to the world. On the other hand, I am quite sure that no man is justified in refusing individual relief who neglects to take advantage of the relief that is extended by organizations. I am perfectly certain that no institution for correction can by any possibility be administered wisely, in which the central point of administration, the leading motive, is not the motive of sympathy. So that the two things go hand in hand, and I think it would be hard to say which of the two would be more injurious, charity without correction, or correction without charity.

I am inclined just for a moment to wonder whether there is not a certain moral worth in the way in which that letter H got into our English word, in its passage from the Latin days. We have got it Charity, the doing of that which wants to be done for the poor and unfortunate. It comes from the richest word in the richest of languages, the old Greek *charis*, which stands for grace and favour, and strength and influence, love, help, thankfulness, joy and worship. All these elements enter into this work with which we are dealing. First of all to-night in dealing with it, let us remember that we are reaching out into

the great and splendid field of the whole of humanity, touching the great subject of Christian socialism, touching a subject in which all human beings, thank God, whatever may be their other convictions, can be and are united in the one matter, in the one motive. It is quite patent to everybody who reads history and knows in any degree the story of the past, that this has been the great line of difference between the religion that came directly from God, and all those forms of religion which marked and marred the greatest civilizations of the pagan type. Thus the old Hebrew revelation of the Fatherhood of God passed into the heavenly brotherhood of man, the Christian revelation and mystery that culminated in Jesus Christ, who stands even to the unbeliever as the ideal Man, who stands to the reverent Hebrew as a prophet, who stands to us Christian people, as the Incarnate God. This is the line along which you and I are setting ourselves to think, and ought to be setting ourselves to work. It is the old story which hardly bears repeating, that the clear conviction in the minds of the Romans, who stood for the highest and most refined degree of civilization in the earlier days, was that the cripple, the criminal, the helpless child or the hopeless invalid was a mere burden to society, to be gotten rid of in the easiest and quickest way possible; whereas it is not too much to say that the old saying of the Master to his disciple, St. John, "Go and tell what you have seen and heard," is the test and token of the power of the religion of Jesus Christ in the world to-day; which has dotted the surface of the earth with hospitals and places of refuge for the very people who were outcasts and burdens to be gotten rid of in the civilizations of ante-Christian days. And yet let us not fail to bear in mind — because I am quite sure the two things must go hand in hand if either of them is to be possible, if the two together are to be helpful not hurtful to society — that there must be with the spirit of charity the spirit, also, of correction; and that there must be with the spirit of correction the spirit, also, of charity. I don't remember whether it was the Secretary of State or the mayor who alluded just now to the great question of correction in our penal institutions. The old

idea of a prison was a place in which the wicked man was to anticipate, as far as the ingenuity and cruelty of human beings could accomplish it, a taste of the supposed physical tortures that were to be inflicted upon an immaterial spirit in a material hell. To-day I undertake to say, the civilized, social, intelligent thought of a prison is a place not of vengeance or penalty, but merely of reformation and restoration. In fact that wonderful story of the Prodigal Son showed to mankind how a man might be enabled to "come to himself." This, I take it, my friends, is really nothing in the world but carrying out on our part the true conception of Almighty God as he reveals himself to mankind. Let us never delude ourselves into that thought, that God is a mere reckless distributor of favors and prizes and pleasures, with no concern and no desire to correct sin; nor let us deceive ourselves by picturing the Almighty as an arbitrary, unfeeling God, who punishes lése-majesty and indignities to his own person by the ruthless torturing of the criminal. God reveals himself to us in His holy word as an absolute and essential completeness, an absolute balanced combination of mercy and justice, of love and discipline, of charity and correction.

I was reading only the other day, in a speech delivered by a returned officer of the South African army the story of a woman of whom it is not too much to say that her name has been written deeper and will remain longer in the hearts of men and women than any other woman who has lived in modern times, Queen Victoria. She was visiting the hospital at Woolwich only a very few weeks before her own death, and she found lying on a cot a dying soldier of whom this story was told. He himself, wounded in the veldt, had found shelter under an over-hanging rock, but seeing a comrade shot down in the open plain, he crawled out and dragged his wounded comrade back to the shelter, and in the effort received himself his fatal wound from which he was dying then, and the Queen, as she stood by his bed, put her hand upon his arm and said: "My son, I thank you for what you have done for me;" which is simply a womanly translation of that great sentence of God, which one day shall

overwhelm those whose only fault, on the one hand, has been indifference; and one day shall greet with sweet surprise those whose only grace, on the other hand, has been charity. "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these, ye have done it unto Me."

### PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

"THE PROGRESS OF TWENTY YEARS," WILLIAM RHINELANDER STEWART.

*Ladies and Gentlemen.*—The opportunity of addressing an audience like this, and in such a place, is a rare and precious one. All of you are here to show your interest in the practical problems involved in the intelligent care of the dependent and the delinquent in this State. Many of you represent also charitable institutions or societies, public or private, organized for the relief of destitution and suffering. Many of you are specialists in one branch or another of the philanthropic activities of the State. Among you are many personal friends and fellow-workers of long standing with whom it is always gratifying and inspiring to meet and confer. And in this stately Senate Chamber have been enacted not a few beneficent laws for the passage of which we have labored, and which have led to improved conditions for the unfortunate. This is indeed a fitting place for our deliberations. Fitting also is it that we have been welcomed, as we begin our Conference, by the distinguished representatives of Church and State. For their presence here and for their eloquent and encouraging words we thank them.

Within the limitations of time imposed upon me, it seems most profitable to outline for your consideration the condition of our charitable and reformatory institutions, whether State, county, municipal or private, twenty years ago, as contrasted with the conditions of to-day. My reason for selecting this particular period is that I then first gained a knowledge of the institutions through my appointment, by Governor Cornell, as a member of the State Board of Charities. Permit me, then, to sketch briefly the changes which have occurred within that

period of time; to say a few words as to present conditions in all these parts of our common field; and, finally, to indicate some of the results still to be achieved and for which our efforts should be united.

This period has been one of material progress and evolution. Evolution of the almshouses from being the abode of many incongruous human elements toward the ideal condition of affording orderly homes for the aged and dependent poor. Evolution of the insane asylums, at first largely for the custodial care of the insane, to State hospitals for their scientific treatment and cure. Evolution of the penitentiaries and jails to reformatory institutions where practicable. Evolution and extension of the State charitable institutions to embrace the care and treatment of various classes hitherto inadequately and improperly cared for, if cared for at all, by public authorities, in the several county, city and town almshouses.

This progress still continues, and the sympathetic interest and support of all of the members of this Conference are asked in support of such further measures of improvement as may from time to time be instituted by the authorities charged with the responsibility of dealing with these great questions.

#### STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The more widespread and intelligent interest in all efforts to improve the character of our citizenship, which is one of the signs of the times, has nowhere been more actively and successfully exerted than among the charitable and reformatory institutions of this State. These institutions, from the several dates of their establishment by special acts of the Legislature, have, in accordance with the established policy of the State, been managed by governing boards appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. The grounds and buildings they occupy are owned by the State, and the expenses of maintenance have been and are now met by legislative appropriations.

In 1881 there were in existence but six of the fourteen State charitable or reformatory institutions so governed, now under the general supervision of the State Board of Charities,—the

State Industrial School at Rochester, established in 1846; the State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children, Syracuse, established in 1851; the New York State School for the Blind, Batavia, established in 1865; the Thomas Asylum for Orphan and Destitute Indian Children, Iroquois, established in 1875; the New York State Soldiers and Sailors' Home at Bath, established in 1878; and the State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-Minded Women, Newark, also established in 1878.

The State hospitals for the care of the insane, and the New York State Reformatory at Elmira, were, at the opening of the period we are considering, also within the jurisdiction of the State Board of Charities. The State hospitals for the insane were placed under the general supervision of a State Commission in Lunacy in 1889 without material change in the system of immediate administration and control by their governing boards. By the passage of the "State Care Act," one of the most beneficent of our statutes, in 1890, all the dependent insane became the wards of the State, and such as were not already inmates of a State hospital were later committed there. It is gratifying to recall the fact that the movement for the establishment of farm colonies for the able-bodied insane had its origin in the State Board of Charities in 1885, a special committee of which, after repeated failures, succeeded, with the help of others, in securing from the Board of Estimate of New York city an appropriation for the purchase of a farm at Central Islip for the care of the able-bodied insane of the City Asylum on Ward's Island. On this site the great Central Islip Colony now stands, providing suitable accommodation for 3,500 patients.

The New York State Reformatory at Elmira, which was established in 1876 as the result of efforts in which the State Board was active, was, by the action of the Constitutional Convention of 1894, and subsequent statutes, placed under the general supervision of the State Commission of Prisons, although permitted to retain a governing board, which the State prisons have never possessed, and which has not yet been provided for the Eastern Reformatory at Napanoch.

The House of Refuge on Randall's Island was incorporated under the title "Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents in the City of New York" in 1824, and has since that date been administered by a board of managers acting under a private charter. While standing on land belonging to New York city, the buildings have been erected by State appropriations, and the maintenance provided from the same source. This institution antedates any State charitable or reformatory institution or State hospital now open.

By the establishment of the House of Refuge for Women at Hudson in 1881, the State acknowledged its guardianship for a class of delinquent young women for whose care and reformation it had as yet made no suitable provision. No one at all familiar with the humane movement which had this result can refrain from praising the patient and intelligent leadership of one of the honored members of this Conference, Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell of New York. This is only one of her great services to humanity. In 1890 the State provided for the care of wayward young women of the western part of the State, a similar institution to that at Hudson, by the establishment of the Western House of Refuge for Women at Albion. Also, for the reception and care of young women from New York and Kings counties, the State Reformatory for Women at Bedford was established by act of 1892, although not opened for the reception of inmates until May, 1901. These three institutions are on the cottage plan.

It is thus seen that between 1881 and 1901 the State had assumed the care of a new class of wards, and has made suitable and adequate provision for them in the three reformatories named. The important principle, that for the reformation of the individual the personal relation must as far as possible be established with the superintendent, has not been lost to sight in these institutions, as none of them contains a population of more than 250 inmates.

A fuller recognition of the dangers arising from the presence of a large number of feeble-minded or idiotic persons in the almshouses or in the homes of the poor has led to a marked ex-

tension of State provision for their custodial care, since the establishment of the Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children in 1851. This institution, intended for teachable children of feeble mind, has now continued its humane work for more than half a century. In 1878, shortly before the period under review began, the State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-Minded Women was established at Newark in Wayne county as a shelter and home for an unfortunate class of young women not endowed by nature with sufficient mental strength for their own protection, and whose presence in the community has become a constant and increasing menace. For these the asylum at Newark, with its cottages, provides a well-ordered and appropriate home. In 1881 the Newark Asylum sheltered 114 inmates. It now cares for 497, and provision has been made for sixty more.

In 1893, through the purchase by the State of the Oneida County Almshouse and Asylum for the Insane at Rome—established thereafter as the Rome State Custodial Asylum—a third step was taken by the State for the care of the feeble-minded and idiotic class of its dependents. This institution receives both men and women, and now shelters the most degenerate of their class to be found in any State institution. It provided the first State refuge for such able-bodied men whose presence among the people at large was highly dangerous. Additions to the accommodations at Rome have brought the present capacity to 650. Let us hope that in a few years adequate State provision will have been made for all these unfortunates in the three State institutions at Syracuse, Newark and Rome. At Syracuse the children, and they alone, should be received and retained until they are past school age; at Newark the feeble-minded young women of child-bearing age should be cared for, either on transfer from Syracuse or original reception; and Rome should shelter all the feeble-minded or idiotic men, and the idiotic women—or those of feeble mind past the child-bearing age—for whom there is no other home. Considerable enlargement to the Rome and Newark Asylums is still necessary.

A movement to extend State care to all indigent epileptics was crowned with success in 1894 by the establishment of Craig Colony at Sonyea, in Livingston county, for this purpose. A Shaker settlement, comprising two groups of habitable buildings upon a beautiful and fertile farm of nearly 2,000 acres, was purchased, and well-directed efforts made to prepare it for early occupation. Looking back over the eight years which have since elapsed, the results already achieved there seem almost marvelous. The present census of inmates is 826, and means are available for dormitories for about 200 more. Scientific treatment, open air life, regular and productive occupation have proved beneficial to the unfortunate inmates, and many have been practically cured.

Those who knew Oscar Craig, of Rochester, for many years my friend and colleague, rejoice at the fruition of his years of labor for the foundation of this great charity. His lamented death just before the establishing act was passed by the Legislature appropriately led to the bestowal of his name to the Colony which has thus become his well-merited and enduring monument.

In order to provide a home for aged veterans and their wives, and for widows or mothers of veterans and army nurses—women not being admitted to the Soldiers' Home at Bath—"The Woman's Relief Corps Home" was established at Oxford in Chenango county in 1894. Several buildings have since been erected, and the Home now houses thirty-two veterans and ninety-three of their wives or mothers and army nurses.

A modest experiment is now being made by the State in caring for crippled and deformed children, pursuant to a law of 1900, establishing the "New York State Hospital for the Care of Crippled and Deformed Children." At Tarrytown, in a rented building, some twenty-five children are now receiving skilled orthopedic treatment.

Better knowledge of the prevalence and communicable character of tuberculosis led to an agitation for State care of patients afflicted with incipient pulmonary tuberculosis, and in 1900 the "New York State Hospital for the Treatment of Incipi-

ent Pulmonary Tuberculosis" was established by the Legislature. A site has been purchased at Raybrook in the Adirondacks, and plans for buildings have been approved.

In all the State institutions mentioned, marked improvements have been made. The grounds and buildings are more sanitary, more suitable, and in better taste, while there has been a very considerable decrease in the per capita cost for housing in most cases. Barracks are now the exception — not, as formerly, the rule. Cottages affording a nearer approach to home life, and opportunities for moral and educational classification, are now supplanting them. The superintendents, officers and employes are, almost without exception, worthy the positions they hold, and are faithful and intelligent in the performance of duties often arduous and repugnant. They have kept in step with the onward march of thinkers and workers in the field of charity outside the institution walls.

We must not forget, however, that the managers have always been and are now primarily responsible for the good administration of the State institutions. They appoint and can remove the superintendents and other officers, and the administration and general conditions are of their making. It is a great pleasure to me, after a long acquaintance with all State institutions, to testify to their generally excellent management. In twenty years the formal investigations under charges of mismanagement of any State institution have probably not numbered more than six, and any abuses shown resulted generally from political influences, including the appointment of inexperienced or unfit managers. As these institutions are supported by general taxation, it seems but reasonable and proper that all parts of the State should be represented in their management. Can there be a more sacred trust residing in the appointing power than the selection of members of the managing boards of our State charitable or reformatory institutions? While other Governors have done well, and it is not my purpose to make any invidious comparisons, a sense of justice compels me to say that the example of Governor, now President Roosevelt, was exceptionally praiseworthy in this particular. Where vacancies

occurred he was careful to obtain persons of reputation and experience to fill them, and consequently the boards of managers are now almost generally recognized as being efficient and trustworthy, and unselfishly interested in the performance of their duties.

#### COUNTY AND MUNICIPAL CHARITIES.

On the first day of October, 1881, there were 55 county almshouses, and 12 city and town almshouses. Together they sheltered 16,148 inmates, of whom there were reported insane, 6,157; idiots, 493; epileptics, 296; blind, 256; deaf, 40; children under two years, 273; children between two and sixteen, 3,692; a total of these classes of 11,207. During the first decade of this period these institutions were inspected, as often as the performance of his other duties would allow, by the late Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, then Secretary of the State Board of Charities, whose kindly personality must be still remembered in many of them, and whose suggestions were helpful in securing improved conditions.

But few changes in the list of county, city and town almshouses occurred during the period named. Queens County Almshouse, on Barnum's Island, was, in 1899, transferred to Nassau county, and, in 1901, closed. Montgomery county opened an almshouse in 1900. Richmond County Almshouse became a city almshouse with the incorporation of that county as part of Greater New York city. The three town almshouses of Schuyler county, Dix, Hector and Watkins, have been closed, and the poor of those towns are now "farmed out." Utica City Almshouse and Hospital is now a hospital only. In 1881 three counties—Hamilton, Montgomery and Schuyler—"farmed out" their poor; in 1901 Hamilton and Schuyler still continued to do so. This method of providing for the poor, is open to many objections, and the hope is expressed that these two counties will soon build almshouses of their own.

In 1901, October first, the number of insane—probably persons suffering from senility—reported in all the county, city and town almshouses was 129; idiots and feeble-minded, 1,176; epileptics, 288; blind, 319; deaf, 94; children under two years, 104; children between two and sixteen years, 13; a total of

2,123 of these classes; showing a reduction of 9,084 in the past twenty years. The large number of idiotic and feeble-minded reported in the institutions in 1901 is explained by the fact that most of these are feeble-minded aged persons, and that in 1881 no statistics relating to this class in the almshouses were collected. With the increasing provisions for epileptics at Craig Colony, and for the idiotic and feeble-minded at the State institutions at Newark and Rome, these two classes of dependents should soon disappear from the almshouses. The blind and the deaf should find asylum in special homes which should be provided for this class. The total number of almshouse inmates October 1, 1901, was 12,879, a decrease in twenty years of 3,269. Another decade should leave the almshouses entirely for the occupation of the aged poor, for whom alone they are suitable abodes. The end of a long campaign with this objective seems therefore now in view.

Subsequently to the establishment of the State Board of Charities as a Constitutional Board in 1895, more liberal provision has been made by the Legislature for the prosecution of its work. The Board has formed a Department of State and Alien Poor, with a superintendent and inspectors, and has for several years been able to make frequent and careful examination of these institutions. The results of this closer supervision have proved beneficial, and improvements are general among them.

Within this brief period Dutchess, Fulton, Montgomery and Schenectady counties, and the city of Oswego, have erected new almshouses of approved and modern construction and equipment. Work has also been begun on a new almshouse for Tioga county. Changes, which amount almost to reconstruction, have been made in the almshouse buildings of the following counties: Albany, Broome, Cayuga, Chautauqua, Chemung, Chenango, Erie, Lewis, Nassau, Onondaga, Orange, Schoharie, Steuben, Wayne and Wyoming.

Beside many other important improvements, new hospital buildings have been erected, or the older ones greatly improved, in the counties of Essex, Greene, Niagara, Oneida, St. Lawrence.

Saratoga, Warren, Washington and Westchester, and in Poughkeepsie city.

In addition to these last named, where the feature of the building improvement is the hospital, in almost all of the first two groups of counties named the hospital is a part of the new equipment. These counties, in connection with the four which compose the city of New York, are those in which the changes and improvements have been so extensive as to be of the first importance.

In every other county in the State, with the exception of Hamilton and Schuyler, neither of which has an almshouse, improvements of many kinds have been made, all insuring greater comfort for the inmates, better sanitation and protection from fire, and more satisfactory administration. It may be safely stated that there is not a county in the State wherein the condition of the poor who are cared for in almshouses has not been changed for the better during the past five years.

Generally speaking, the county superintendents of the poor are men of intelligence and character, and perform satisfactorily their important functions. Their annual convention is always an interesting meeting and is productive of much good.

#### PRIVATE CHARITIES.

While the public charities do credit to our State, we have, perhaps, even more reason to be proud of its private charities. A few of these had their origin in colonial days, but by far the greater number have been organized since the close of the Civil War. Their growth has been even more remarkable than that of our public charities. Free from the restraining governmental conditions which naturally impede the establishment and development of State, county or municipal institutions, and entirely removed from the influence of politics, the unrestrained initiative of the founders and managers of the private charities has led to more rapid and satisfactory results.

From Montauk to Buffalo, and from Canada to the Pennsylvania line, the State is occupied in the organized work of private charity, and it may be reasonably said that there is no

better field in the world to which the philanthropist and the sociologist may repair for the investigation of the causes of degeneracy, dependency and crime, and the methods in operation for their intelligent relief and cure, than is afforded by the State of New York.

Within the period of the twenty years we are considering, 191 private charities have been incorporated. Of these, thirty-five were homes for the aged, forty-three were homes for children, and the needs of the sick poor have led to the incorporation of just 100 hospitals, without taking account of the dispensaries which have also been licensed to carry on their work. Among these new institutions are the Isabella Heimath, the Sloane Maternity, The Charity Organization Society, the Montefiore Home for Chronic Invalids, the New York Cancer Hospital and the Seton Hospital for Consumptives, all of the city of New York, but having an international reputation for beneficent work. Besides these, almost every part of the State has well-conducted institutions of comparatively recent foundation, rendering incalculable service to humanity.

Altogether there is now in this State more than a thousand well-organized and useful private charities devoted to the alleviation of practically every conceivable form of human need. Statistics show an annual expenditure by these institutions of about \$20,000,000, a sum almost equal to the annual cost of maintaining the State government. The influence for good of these institutions is far reaching, and is continually enlarging in many directions. They are generally well managed, and their improvement in recent years is noticeable. Occasional failures to reach the prevailing standard of excellence are the exceptions which emphasize the rule. More attention should be paid in some of the homes for children to the educational work and to manual training, and it is hoped that all these institutions will soon be able to provide adequately for the needs of their inmates in both of these important particulars.

Many of these institutions own and occupy sites in New York and others of our cities, which have greatly increased in value. There is quite a marked tendency at present to dispose

of these properties, and with the proceeds to purchase large tracts of land in the suburbs, and to erect upon them buildings of modern design and construction. In not a few of such cases the opportunity is being improved to change from the congregate to the cottage plan, a highly commendable transformation. The plans for the reconstruction of the New York Juvenile Asylum, to be built at Dobbs Ferry, provide for a cottage settlement where the inmates should enjoy most of the advantages of family life.

Very gratifying progress has recently been made in the work of placing out children, particularly in this State, and a better understanding between the different placing-out agencies has been established. There is room for an extension of this work on conservative lines, to the end that more children may receive home training under that careful supervision which is now recognized as essential to their welfare.

The facilities of some of the private charities are still unequal to the reasonable demands made upon them. This is particularly true of the homes for the aged and of the homes and the hospitals for the convalescent poor. The prospect of an early extension of the facilities for the care of the latter class is most gratifying.

The establishment of conferences such as these is a gratifying indication of further progress in the improvement of charitable and correctional work. We have the National Conference, State conferences in many of the leading states of the Union, and the Catholic and the Hebrew conferences also. There is, too, the Summer School in Philanthropy established by the Charity Organization Society of New York. All these are educational movements, diffusing correct and useful information with relation to the true principles which should govern the management of charitable and correctional institutions. As such they deserve the encouragement and the support of all who are interested in the better care of suffering and unfortunate humanity.

The fact that those most deeply interested in the charities of the State, whether public or private, are to-day substantially agreed as to the things most essential to the satisfactory man-

agement and development of the work in which all are engaged, must be a source of satisfaction to every delegate to this Conference, and to those outside of it who are in sympathy with our aims and purposes.

Let us then continue our efforts to weld together into one harmonious whole for common action the various bodies of charity workers of this State, who until recently have more or less, separately and alone, each in its own way and sphere, contributed to the solution of the problems arising from dependency, pauperism and crime. We shall thus secure more promptly and surely that public support and confidence which will enable us to carry through to a successful conclusion whatever reforms and improvements in charitable administration true progress demands.

Rt. Rev. WILLIAM CROSWELL DOANE.—As the oldest man in the room, I claim the privilege of saying in behalf of the members of this Conference, and all who are gathered here, that we are most grateful for this most interesting and admirable paper; that we recognize with great thankfulness that wonderful statement of the advance that has been made, and I say here what Secretary McDonough said just now to me, *quorum pars magna fuisti*.

Hon. SIMON W. ROSENDALE.—On behalf of the local reception committee I am requested to say that at 10 o'clock, at the Hotel Ten Eyck, a reception will be given to the delegates and their friends, to which all these delegates and their friends, and those who have honored us with their presence to-night are most cordially invited.

After some announcements by the Secretary, the first session of the Conference was adjourned by the President at 9.15 p. m.

## SECOND SESSION.

*Wednesday, November 19, 1902, Senate Chamber.*

The session was called to order by the President at 10.30 a. m. In accordance with the provisions of the by-laws, the President appointed the following committees:

Committee on Resolutions—Professor James H. Hamilton, Syracuse; Edward J. Hussey, Albany; James Wood, Mt. Kisco.

Committee on Time and Place — Rev. Dr. Max Landsberg, Rochester; Mrs. M. Fullerton, New York; Rev. Dr. Robert W. Hill, Canandaigua; Mrs. Charles E. Crouse, Syracuse; Lafayette L. Long, Buffalo.

Committee on Organization—Daniel B. Murphy, Rochester; Frederic Almy, Buffalo; Edward T. Devine, New York; Robert W. Heberd, Albany; Lee K. Frankel, New York; Mrs. John Davenport, Bath; Thomas W. Hynes, Brooklyn.

Mr. George F. Canfield, of New York city, was called by the President to the chair, and presented the report of the Committee on the Mentally Defective, as follows:

#### REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE.

The past year has been an eventful one in the history of our State institutions for the insane and the mentally defective. By the amendments to the Insanity Law, which were passed by the Legislature of 1902, our system of supervising and managing the institutions for the insane was fundamentally changed, and by the amendments to the State Charities Law our system of supervising and managing the institutions for the feeble-minded and the epileptic was changed in some important respects, although not fundamentally. In order that we may clearly understand the present situation and the nature and scope of these changes, we must consider briefly what the old system was.

The old system of managing the State institutions, both for the insane and for the feeble-minded and the epileptic, comprised four principal features. Those features were:

1. Control of the internal management and care of the inmates of the institutions by boards of unpaid managers, appointed and removable by the Governor, and therefore responsible to him for the faithful performance of their duties.

2. The superintendents or administrative heads of the institutions appointed and removable by these boards of managers,

and therefore responsible to them for the internal management and the care of the inmates.

3. The financial control vested in an independent body or official at Albany, in the case of the institutions for the insane, in the Lunacy Commission, and in the case of the institutions for the feeble-minded and the epileptic, in the State Comptroller, the Lunacy Commission and the State Comptroller having the power of vetoing and revising expenditures recommended by the superintendents and boards of managers, but having no power themselves of making contracts for the supplies and the other expenses of the institutions.

4. The power of visiting and inspecting the internal management of the institutions vested in a central independent body not connected with or directly responsible for the internal management. In the case of the institutions for the insane this central independent body was the State Commission in Lunacy, and in the case of the institutions for the feeble-minded and the epileptic it was the State Board of Charities.

Such was our old system of managing the State institutions for the insane and the mentally defective. It was a system which was established and developed as the result of the earnest thought and special experience of the philanthropists of our State. It was the system of local management as opposed to that of centralized State control, and local management by philanthropists, it was believed in the light of experience, was better adapted than official control from a distance, to secure wise and kindly care for the inmates of these institutions, that great mass of helpless and unfortunate creatures who in the past had suffered so often and so scandalously from official ignorance or official dishonesty. This system of local management in one form or another is the one which prevails to-day in Great Britain and in most of the states of this country, and as the result of a rather extended investigation and correspondence with persons connected with State charitable institutions, or active in charitable work in other states, I may say that this system is not only the one favored by the philanthropists of this State, but it is supported by the largely preponderant sen-

timent of the charity workers throughout the country. In some states, for example in New Jersey, there is the system of local management without State supervision; in other states, for example in Ohio, there is a system of local management with State supervision merely, but without State financial control; finally, in other states, for example in Massachusetts, there is the system of local management supplemented by both State supervision and limited financial control.

The only serious criticism that was ever made against the system of local management was on the score of extravagance. Whether that criticism was well founded or not (according to competent authority it was well founded, if at all, only to a very limited extent), there was never any serious doubt that the inmates of the institutions were receiving wise and kindly care. When the financial control was taken away from the boards of managers in 1893 and 1894 and vested in the State, there was then no longer any ground for apprehending extravagant management by these boards, for the State had the power, either through the Lunacy Commission or the State Comptroller, of preventing any extravagance. It would seem, therefore, that our old system, with its checks and balances was well devised to secure both wise and kindly care and economical and efficient administration, and so to satisfy both the demands of humanitarianism and the interests of the taxpayers. On the one hand, it called into play the intelligent activity and philanthropic zeal of the members of the boards of managers, good men and women interested in the welfare of the inmates and familiar with and responsive to their needs, as they could learn them on the spot, and on the other hand, it safe-guarded the financial interests of the State by the vigilant supervision of an independent State official or commission possessing financial control.

As a matter of fact, the results achieved under that system were, on the whole, most satisfactory and gratifying, both with respect to the efficient care of the inmates and with respect to economy, and we shall be more fortunate than we have any reasonable ground for expecting, if equally satisfactory results can be permanently achieved under the new system. In fact,

it was because the results of the old system were so satisfactory, and because there was so much apprehension on account of the dangers involved in the new system, that the amendments to the Insanity Law adopted last winter were so unanimously opposed by the charity workers of this State.

What, then, is our new system? So far as the State institutions for the feeble-minded and the epileptic which are under the jurisdiction of the State Board of Charities are concerned, the important changes affected by the amendments to the State Charities Law are those providing for a Fiscal Supervisor, giving to the Governor the power of removing superintendents and stewards, and vesting in the Governor, the State Comptroller and the President of the State Board of Charities the power to approve or revise plans for new buildings and the letting of contracts for the erection of buildings or for extraordinary repairs and improvements. The Fiscal Supervisor has the power of financial control heretofore vested in the State Comptroller, and has, in addition, the power and duty of visiting and inspecting the institutions. While the boards of managers are nominally left untouched, and no powers are expressly taken from them, the vesting in the Governor of the power of removing superintendents and stewards undoubtedly tends in the direction of greater State control, and the office of Fiscal Supervisor may bring into activity influences which, if not resisted, will tend towards the development of an administrative board for the charitable institutions, similar to the Lunacy Commission as now constituted for the hospitals for the insane, and if such an administrative board is established, efforts may be renewed practically to abolish the State Board of Charities.

The amendments to the Insanity Law effected much more important changes with respect to the hospitals for the insane than these amendments to the State Charities Law with respect to charitable institutions. These changes, indeed, are so fundamental that we have now already an entirely new system for the supervision and management of our institutions for the insane. By these amendments the authority of the superintendents has been seriously impaired by taking from them the power of appointing the stewards, and the administrative work of the hos-

pitals is therefore now divided between the superintendents and the stewards, a thoroughly, unscientific and discredited administrative arrangement; all the local boards of managers have been abolished, and there is now vested in the Commission the control of the internal management of the institutions heretofore possessed by the boards of managers, together with the power of appointing the stewards heretofore possessed by the superintendents, and the very important and dangerous power of transferring the superintendents from one hospital to another, without assigning any reasons therefor, and of transferring any of the powers and duties of a superintendent to another officer to be appointed by the Commission. The Lunacy Commission, therefore, possesses now, under the Governor, complete control, both financial and internal, and its constitutional functions as a visiting and inspecting body have, therefore, been destroyed. The amendments do indeed provide for visitation and inspection by local boards of visitors, but these are without any real or effective authority, and the new system may, therefore, be designated a system of State control supplemented by local supervision, as opposed to the old system of local control supplemented by State supervision.

This system of State control has recently been established in some Western States, including Wisconsin, Iowa and Minnesota, but it is still in the experimental stage, and it cannot yet be determined how it will work as a permanent policy.

Of course, we must all concede that men are better than systems. Under bad systems good men will give us good results, and under good systems bad men will give us bad results. The test, therefore, of the value of an administrative system is whether it is likely on the whole, and in the long run, to give us good men for administrative officers and to place those men under such conditions that they can do their best. Applying this test we must say that the system of State control for charitable institutions has not been in operation long enough anywhere to determine as a matter of experience whether or not it will work well in the long run. Moreover, even if it should work well in the long run in such a State, for example, as Iowa, it does not follow that it would work equally well

here, where the social and political conditions are different, and the number of dependents upon charity and of inmates of charitable institutions is so much larger.

So far as our own State is concerned, as this new system did not go into operation until April last, it is, of course, entirely impossible to say from experience whether or not the fears of the opponents of that system will be realized. Those fears were not as to immediate consequences, but as to what was likely to follow ultimately, and in the natural course of events. So far as I know, none of the powers conferred by these amendments of the Insanity Law which might be exercised to the detriment of the hospital service, have yet been actually exercised. The Lunacy Commission is still composed of the same men. None of the superintendents have been removed or transferred, and there has not yet been any substantial change in the personnel of the service. It is to be feared, however, that the impaired authority of the superintendents, the division of responsibility between them and the stewards, their subjection to this subtle power of transfer, and their loss of the strong and intelligent support of the local board of managers, will tend to make the field of hospital service less attractive hereafter to men of high attainments, and that when the present superintendents go out of office, their places will be filled by an inferior grade of men.\* This is, perhaps, one of the greatest dangers involved in the new system, and when these consequences follow, the deterioration in our hospitals will be rapid and lamentable. For the present, however, we may concede that no tangible, clearly defined bad results have yet appeared; and, on the other hand, it must be conceded that no good results have appeared. This is only natural, for, as we have seen, there have not yet been any important changes in the men, and men are more important than systems, and can for a time resist adverse influences; and it tends only to confuse the situation to argue that it is otherwise.

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\* Since the above was written a superintendent of a State hospital and a superintendent of a State charitable institution have resigned to accept positions at the head of general hospitals under the city of New York.

The contention of the friends of the new system that the policy or practice of economy in the management of the State hospitals is the result of the change of system is entirely unwarranted. Equally unwarranted is the contention of the opponents of that system that among its results is the reduction of the dietary and of hospital attendance below the proper standard of care, and the reduction in the recovery rate. All these grave evils, while they may tend to increase under the new system, are not the results of that system, but of the policy or the practice of economy, which antedated the new system, and cannot, therefore, be a result of it. This policy of economy has, in fact, been pursued for a number of years, and it must be admitted with increasing success so far as mere financial results are concerned, and such a policy could have been continued without any change in the old system. The control of expenditure under the new system is precisely where it was under the old system, and where it has been ever since the year 1893, viz., in the hands of the State Commission in Lunacy, the Legislature and the Governor.

The annual per capita cost of maintenance, which previous to the fiscal year ending September 30, 1899, had never been below \$184.25, was that year reduced to \$178.42. In the following year, 1900, the low rate of \$164.79 was reached. It was naturally found impossible to maintain this rate, and the following year, 1901, shows an increase to \$167.70. During the past year another forced reduction has been made, resulting in the exceptionally low rate of \$161.69. This rate has been maintained in the face of a rising market, and notwithstanding a largely increased expenditure for coal, by diminishing the amounts spent for food, clothing and other supplies, ordinary repairs, salaries and wages. This low rate of maintenance has been coincident with a decrease in the number of recoveries from 1,209 during the fiscal year 1901, to 1,133 during the year 1902, though there were nearly 600 more patients under care. It has also been accompanied by an overcrowding of the State hospitals, which is estimated variously at from 2,000 to 3,000 patients.

These unfortunate conditions are not, as we have said, the result of the new system. Indeed, since the new system went into operation the State authorities, in response to the earnest recommendations of a committee of medical superintendents, have increased the allowance of food, and to that extent have improved the situation. The situation, therefore, can be still further improved, at least, temporarily, without any change in the law. Whether the new system is to remain unchanged, or is to give way to something better, what is needed now is that the Governor and the Legislature and the State Commission in Lunacy should abandon this penny-wise and pound-foolish policy and should permit a more generous rate of expenditure. The State Commission in Lunacy should recommend to the Legislature a sufficient appropriation for the needs of the insane. The Legislature should make such an appropriation, and the Governor should approve it.

One of the principal motives for this new legislation was undoubtedly this passion — as it may properly be called — for a short-sighted economy, and one of the apprehensions in regard to the possible effect of this legislation was that, if we have State authorities honestly and zealously devoted to economy, we shall have too much economy and too little efficiency, and under existing circumstances that apprehension was perhaps a more active influence than the other apprehension, that if we have State authorities not zealously and honestly devoted to economy, we shall have both inefficiency and extravagance.

The fact that the practice of economy had already been carried too far, and that one of the first important acts performed after the adoption of the new system, which had for its object ostensibly, at least, the securing of greater economy, was the formal acceptance of the necessity of increased expenditure, shows how real this danger is — the danger, namely, under State control of a too parsimonious expenditure of money, involving not merely a neglect of the patients, but also of the broader interests of the taxpayers. Under the new system, therefore, more than ever, is the vigilant supervision of philanthropic citizens imperative. More than ever is it necessary to

keep an intelligent public opinion well informed, and to bring to bear upon the management of these institutions the beneficent influence of such opinion to the end that, without sacrificing the interests of the taxpayers, the demands of humanity shall prevail.

Chairman CANFIELD.—Not having exceeded my own limit of twenty minutes, I am not embarrassed in calling attention to the fact that none of the speakers must exceed that limit of time. We have been told on high authority recently that one of the prime duties of American citizenship at the present time is to learn the viewpoint of the other fellow. We have these State conferences for the purpose of conferring and for the purpose of comparing our views. We are fortunate in having here to-day a former member of the Lunacy Commission, Mr. William Church Osborn, who has tasted the sweets and temptations of power, and if there is anybody who is likely to say a good word for this policy of State control we may expect to hear it from him.

Paper "Safeguarding the Insane," by William Church Osborn, President Children's Aid Society, ex-State Commissioner of Lunacy, New York:

#### SAFEGUARDING THE INSANE.

There are in the public hospitals of this State over 24,000 insane persons, and over 900 in the private hospitals; about 4,000 new cases are received yearly, and about 1,100, or 25 per cent., are discharged cured, but every year sees an increment of about 600 persons to the total. Among these inmates exist great differences of condition; probably 40 per cent. are not only incurable, but have reached that point in the disease where consciousness is dim, sensation dormant, and the mental life reduced to the lowest terms. Of the remainder, a large percentage are curable, and a still larger percentage are keenly sensitive to their surroundings, including not only their physical comfort, but the moral and personal atmosphere or spirit of the institution.

In considering the safeguarding of the insane, therefore, it is evident that the objects in view must in general correspond with the condition of the patient. Manifestly a very different interest attaches to the care of the senile dement lingering on the edge of dissolution, and to the acute case of a curable character. The one requires only warmth, food and cleanliness, and can be treated *en masse* on a uniform system. The other needs personal care, specialized treatment, and the maintenance of a separate and individual life so far as possible. Properly to safeguard our insane means to guarantee good care to all and curative treatment to the curable. Our duty to supply the reasonable agencies of cure is as imperative as the negative safeguards against physical abuse.

The public is too apt to believe that the danger point lies in the unlawful and unjustifiable incarceration of sane persons, and the enjoyable horrors of this situation appeal so strongly to novelists and lawyers of a certain class that it is kept strongly before the public mind, while in fact the present system of oversight in this State is such as to reduce this danger to a minimum. In practice it can scarcely be said to exist. Of the many applications for discharge which I investigated during my two years and a half as a commissioner, but one proved to have merit, and there the patient himself admitted that he had been insane from drugs, but claimed that he had now so far regained the normal that he could safely be released. The authorities of the private institution in which he was coincided with this view and released him without delay. The public should recognize that the insane is a sick person who needs immediate medical treatment, and not an oppressed citizen battling for his liberty. The system of admission requires the certificate of two licensed physicians and an order of court, with the provision that the alleged insane person shall appear before the judge unless sufficient reason to the contrary is shown. In practice, a very large percentage do not appear before the judge, and though I believe the judges should be more particular on this point, yet, as I have said, no cases of abuse have come to my knowledge.

## IN THE HOSPITALS.

Assuming, then, that the patient is properly in the hospital, what are the points to be safeguarded? They may be summarized as follows: First, that degree of comfort and decency which is suitable for the average citizen of the State; second, uniform kindness and consideration from the doctors and the attendants, and a supply of attractions and interests to lessen the monotony of hospital life; third, the best medical treatment for the cure of the disease; fourth, the release from the institution at as early a time as is safe for the patient and the community. One point might be added in the supervision of the patient for a reasonable period after the release from the hospital when he first comes in contact with the strain of life in the open. I conceive that these are the interests to be safeguarded, and surely nothing short of this will satisfy the conscience of the State.

It remains to consider the method by which these ends may be satisfactorily attained, and in that consideration we must bear in mind that it is a practical question in which theory plays a minor part, and the value of the system depends on the way in which it works. It is one phase of the always delicate problem of adjusting men to a special task, and so directing them and stimulating them as to enable them to do their best work. The patients in private institutions are safeguarded by their friends as well as by the Commissioners, so we will speak only of those in the State hospitals, exclusive of the inmates of twenty-three private institutions and two hospitals for the criminal insane. This matter of private institutions is a subject for separate and extensive consideration. It is to be feared that the existing conditions are not satisfactory.

## THE PRESENT SYSTEM.

The insane, exclusive of the inmates of twenty-three private institutions and two hospitals for the criminal insane, are now divided among fourteen State hospitals, containing from 350 to 3,000 patients. Each hospital is under the charge of a superintendent, who receives a house, food, supplies and service, the

whole place calculated to be worth \$10,000 a year, and his work is subject to supervision by the State Commission in Lunacy, consisting of three members, who visit the hospitals at least twice a year. The hospitals and the Commission are criticised by boards of five visitors for each hospital, who report directly to the Governor and to the Commission monthly. No powers are given to these boards, except visitation and inspection, but the freest criticism is expected from them.

The care of these hospitals was originally intrusted to local boards of managers, who were possessed of plenary powers and responsibilities. With 1893 there began what is known as the Estimate System, which concentrated financial powers in the Commission, but left to the boards of managers the power to appoint the superintendent, and through him all local officers, subject to the civil service system. This placed on the managers the responsibility for the domestic administration of the hospitals, and that responsibility has on the whole been well met since 1893. This system was destroyed in the winter of 1902, when the boards of managers were removed by legislative enactment and the entire responsibility for the institutions in every detail was placed upon the State Commission in Lunacy.

Adequately to forecast the effect of these changes we must consider the record of the State Commission in Lunacy and discuss the theory of the boards of managers and the boards of visitors respectively.

#### DUTIES OF THE COMMISSION AND VISITORS.

The work of the Commission under the Acts of 1893 and 1896 has, on the whole, been satisfactory. There has been a great reduction in expense amounting to nearly 25 per cent. in the cost of maintenance. New buildings have been erected with economy and good judgment. The training of nurses and attendants has been improved, and the separation of the Manhattan State Hospital into three institutions, brought about by Dr. Wise, formerly president of the Commission, has been of marked value.

This success should not, however, blind us to the failures of the Commission or to the dangers that may be in store for it.

The very attention to business details which has made so good a record has led to inattention to the medical side of the work, and to a failure to stimulate and bring forward competent men to fill the superintendencies. So that to-day it would be most difficult to pick from the staffs men competent to be put in charge. The conditions which developed our most brilliant superintendents from our own service seem to have disappeared.

During the last eighteen months under the new medical commissioner more attention has, however, been paid to the medical side of the work in the hospitals. The Pathological Institute has been reorganized and brought into affiliation with the clinical material on Ward's Island. Beginning December 1st, Dr. Meyer, the director, gives a week's course of lectures to the superintendents on purely medical and scientific subjects connected with their work. After that the first assistants have a similar course, and after them the second assistants, and so on down the line. Dr. Peterson has attempted to improve the character of the medical service by throwing open the hospitals to young doctors recently graduated from medical colleges and general hospitals, each hospital to have two such clinical assistants serving without pay for a year, but eligible on passing the Regents' examinations to the salaried positions of medical interne, and so on up by civil service promotion. It is believed that by this system in the course of time the whole medical staff of the State hospitals will be leavened by the introduction of a superior class of medical men of the best scientific attainments.

Dr. Peterson believes that the nine or ten hundred insane in the private asylums are not on the average so well cared for as those in the State hospitals, and is making a number of reforms here which will do a vast deal to better their condition. He is impressed, too, with what seems to be a fact, that there are a number of institutions in the State that are receiving and caring for insane people without license or right, which is an offense against the Penal Code, and he is making an effort to discover these and interfere with the illegal practice.

In the matter of a dietary for patients, a committee of the medical superintendents was appointed, and upon the recommendation of an increased ration, the Commission has granted

an enlarged ration, in fact, now corresponding exactly to the standard of diet reported upon by the superintendents themselves.

Another weakness in the Commission's work is that it has failed to provide sufficient accommodation, and it is to-day failing to prepare for the constant increase in population.

Now, I have a theory to account for these and similar shortcomings. It is that the Commissioners are so overburdened, so swamped with administrative detail, so harried with petty decisions on local matters that they do not give the necessary time and thought to the larger questions of policy and management. They should be a central council, they are central administrators. They should place detail on others, they have assumed it themselves. That was a mistake I fell into with the other commissioners, and I think it has not changed since my time. For the Commission has been responsible, since 1893, for every dollar expended. It has had to look into and supervise plans for repairs and new construction, aggregating \$1,000,000 a year, and to look after property worth over \$20,000,000 scattered all over the State, and involving complicated questions of water supply, mechanics, sewerage, etc. To make only the two visits a year to each institution required by law occupies three months, and these duties will increase as the population grows. Now the result of these burdens has been, and in my judgment will be, that the Commission is only superficially acquainted with the actual management of the institution. It does not know what is going on from day to day, and it does not know the characters and ideas of the staffs and attendants on which the health and happiness of the insane largely depend. It leaves such matters to the superintendent, and it is apt to be satisfied with a superintendent if the physical condition of the hospital is good and the rate of maintenance low.

It is true that on the character and standard of the superintendent depends the standard of the hospital and the safety of its inmates. He is the very centre of the system, the pivotal point on which it turns. On the selection, development, support and criticism of this officer hangs the principal safeguard

of the insane. It is his example which animates the staff, his oversight which detects abuses. No outside safeguards are effective if the superintendent is incompetent, inhumane or partial. But the outside system can be a powerful aid to develop the good points of a superintendent and a sharp check on his failures. These requirements were to a large extent met by the boards of managers. The records show that they visited the hospitals constantly in most cases; they knew the officers and many of the attendants; they gave moral support and counsel to the superintendents, and I cannot doubt that their frequent visits exercised a salutary if unconscious influence.

They were charged with power and responsibility for the internal management, and relieved the Commission to that extent; for instance, once when a patient died under suspicious circumstances, the investigation and resultant punishment was made by the board.

There were, I presume, careless managers on every board, and sometimes a whole board was negligent. Here the fault lay not with the system, but with the individual, and the remedy lay with the Governor, for it was his right and duty to reprove the delinquent and to make better appointments. The boards had no part in the expenditures, but were charged with local management, and this trust was well met. After all criticism made they constituted a strong body for the safeguarding of the patients which might have been improved, but should not have been destroyed.

Nor do I think that the history of the State warrants unbounded confidence in its ability to secure competent, hard-working and broad-minded men for the positions on the Commission. In the past eight years there have been instances which reflected unfavorably upon the Commission, and such occurrences must be expected again. The present system should receive all the time of three able men, and they should be required by law to visit all parts of the institutions.

The larger matters of policy to be discussed by the Commission, such as construction of new buildings in accordance with the most improved ideas, the development of the medical staffs

and nursing services, and the decision of mechanical and sanitary questions involved by such large buildings, require intelligence of the first rank, and it is foolish to expect that the State can secure all of the time of men of this class for five or six thousand dollars per annum. A man competent to fill the position of Medical Commissioner can earn double, treble and quadruple the salary with less effort and harassment than is now required of the President. For instance, it has been necessary for Dr. Peterson, since assuming the Presidency, to give from three to four days a week to the cares of his office, interfering to that extent with the practice of his profession. My experience showed me beyond question that a lawyer assuming this position could not attend to these duties and remain in the active practice of the law.

The result must in the long run be unfavorable to the Commission's composition, and unless the detailed duties of the Commission are lessened and the matters coming before them are only such as require general attention, the State cannot count on the services of first-class men, with its present salaries.

This will, in the end, lead to a slackening of the care of the insane which has hitherto been maintained at a high point in this State.

It is well known that two of the present commissioners are not giving all of their time to the work. The dread of this doubtless inspired the creation of the boards of visitors, whose function is criticism of the hospitals' management in the fullest sense of the word. The new law requires these boards to visit the hospitals at least once a month by three members, and make a written report to the Commission and to the Governor. So far as it goes this will doubtless prove to be a check on the acts of the Commission, but the fact that their powers are restricted to destructive criticism, with no constructive functions, shows plainly that their influence will be of a negative character. They will bear no share of the burden and come under no responsibility. They will have no influence over the superintendent except that inspired by fear, and they will have no voice in remedying the evils which they may witness. The history of the Pavilion for the Insane connected with Bellevue Hospital

in New York is striking proof of the fact that such visitation does not safeguard the insane. The State Charities Aid Association had for many years visited this institution regularly through one of its sub-committees, consisting of a layman and an alienist, which constantly reported adversely to the management, and the New York County Committee of the Association made a severe criticism of the management, recommending the appointment of a resident physician. The State Board of Charities also visited it. But they were without remedial powers, and the authorities paid no attention to their protest, and serious outrages occurred, culminating in the death of a patient under circumstances of extreme suspicion.

To summarize my views on safeguarding the insane in the State hospitals, I would say that the objects to be accomplished include not only passive care, the supplying of necessary provisions, warmth, shelter and clothing, but the active development of cheerful and homelike surroundings, of kindness of spirit, and of a high degree of medical skill and care, looking to the cure of as large a proportion of the patients as is possible.

I should say further that these objects are not likely to be satisfactorily attained in the long run by the present system, owing to the fact that the concentration of administrative detail in the Commission is so great, first, as to pre-empt time of the Commission which should be given to the consideration of general matters of policy; and, second, to forbid the Commission the services of a class of men who are fitted to solve the more important questions.

It seems, further, that a provision for boards of visitors without remedial powers is inadequate to give to the insane the constructive and creative care which is necessary properly to safeguard them, and that even the negative criticisms of the visitors are likely to pass unheeded as time goes on.

Sound policy would seem to me to place questions of internal administration upon boards of managers somewhat similar to those which formerly existed, with a clearer definition of their powers, and a sharper supervision of their actions. Further, I think that the business organization of the Commission, while it should retain the financial powers which it now has, should

be so developed as to relieve the commissioners personally from a consideration of a large portion of the details which now come before them.

The State has undertaken a great task, and has on the whole wisely met its obligations; but the future can be assured only by the treatment of the problems involved upon a broad, liberal and permanent basis. That basis I must consider to be the concentration of financial responsibility and the delegation of internal responsibility; and I believe that a system could be worked out upon those lines which would give such safeguards to the insane as the fallibility of human nature may permit.

#### DISCUSSION ON SAFEGUARDING THE INSANE.

The discussion was opened by Dr. MacFarlane of Albany.

DR. MACFARLANE.—I approach the discussion of this paper with a little diffidence for the reason that my experience with the insane was some years ago, since which time I have been in general practice, and I feel I cannot regard the subject from quite as modern a standpoint as I otherwise should. I, however, bring to the discussion of the subject the ideas of the physician from the outside, who probably looks at this phase of the question differently from the physician who is connected with the State hospitals for the insane. I feel, however, that my task has been very much lightened by the most excellent paper of the speaker who has just addressed us. I know of no presentation of the subject which could be more liberal in its character and yet more fruitful in forcible consideration of this subject. I am also glad to discuss this subject because I wish to express my thanks personally to this body of ladies and gentlemen, who have worked unceasingly from the time the chronic insane were removed from the almshouses to the State hospitals, and have continued to show this great consideration for this class of the most helpless of God's creatures.

I feel this subject should be treated purely and entirely from a medical standpoint. If the State hospitals are not medical institutions, they are nothing. If the medical service of the State hospitals is not the best possible medical service, it is a failure. So I think this subject should be considered entirely

from a medical standpoint. The question of economy of course is always important, and one that ought always to be considered, but economy which interferes with the proper medical running of an institution is very short-sighted, very poor economy.

Now the question seems to me to be, in what way shall we develop the best medical service in hospitals for the insane? In what way can we cure the most patients in hospitals for the insane? Because if a hospital for the insane does not cure patients it is a failure. If it simply takes care of the weak, the helpless and the defective it is a good custodial institution, but it is not a State hospital. Now it seems to me a State hospital can be no more superior in its work, in its management, than is the superintendent of the State hospital. The question is, what develops the best superintendent? If the superintendent of a State hospital is made a chief clerk for a bureau at Albany, that superintendent is robbed of his initiative, is robbed of the motive and is robbed of the desire of doing the very best possible. One result will be that you cannot get the best possible men to undertake such duties. Responsibility always develops men. If you take away responsibility from a man you make that man an inferior man. If you take away this responsibility from the superintendent and put it in an office at Albany, that office in Albany cannot possibly carry out that work. Mr. Osborn has shown the difficulties that would result for the State Commission in Lunacy. Its members would be so swamped with the thousand and one details connected with all these enormous institutions that they cannot properly and must superficially consider these things that have been taken away to a very large extent from the superintendents and lodged in the Commission in Lunacy. I don't believe these will be properly taken care of there. I believe for the development of the superintendent as much responsibility as possible should be lodged in his hands.

Then in regard to the medical staff. I think the tendency of the medical staff of the State hospitals is to become inferior and the assistant physicians mediocre. I believe the responsibility for that is this so-called civil service, the Civil Service

Act. Under the very best possible conditions it is a very poor makeshift ordinarily. I remember very well some time ago when Dr. Blumer was superintendent of the State Hospital at Utica, and he was free to select his assistant physicians, he would go to the large hospitals in New York, the Presbyterian or St. Luke's, or other prominent hospitals and would interview the house officers about men who had nearly finished their term of residency, find out which were the most desirable, which would be considered the best men for the position, and the result was that the Utica State Hospital had a group of very fine assistant physicians. That is shown by the fact that the Utica State Hospital is sometimes called the mother of State hospitals, because it has furnished so many superintendents for State hospitals, not only in this State but all over the country. To-day the superintendent of the Hudson River State Hospital, the superintendent at Ogdensburg, and the superintendent at Utica, are men who have been assistant physicians at the Utica State Hospital; but at the present time the men get on the eligible list by an examination before the Civil Service Commission, and there is no way of knowing anything about them. It isn't a question of how much anatomy or physiology a man knows, there are other requisites. All a superintendent can now do is to come down here and select the most desirable of three men. It seems to me if the appointment of assistant physicians in State hospitals could be arranged by a board of superintendents, and these superintendents could act as examiners under the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission, with officers of the Civil Service Commission to assist them, the result would be to get a more desirable element for our assistant physicians, and the whole tone of the system would be improved.

Then, with regard to the present system, I think one of the most dangerous things about the present system is the fact that the steward is appointed by the State Commission in Lunacy, and is not under the direct charge of the superintendent; not responsible directly to the superintendent and not appointed by the superintendent. I personally have had an experience with the so-called dual system and it was a very sad experience.

The dual system can never be made a satisfactory system in the management of an institution. Divided authority never was a satisfactory state. In every day life we put a responsible man in a certain place, give him power and hold him responsible for the result. Under this system though there are no evils arising at the present time, I am absolutely sure that the day is not far distant when there will be very serious evils, and the friction that necessarily results between the superintendent and steward will work great detriment to the State hospitals.

Another point I would like to bring up is in regard to cases of tuberculosis in State hospitals. There are a large number of deaths from tuberculosis each year in State hospitals, and it seems to me the insane ought not to be subjected to the infection of that disease, any more than those who are not insane. In every State hospital there ought to be a special detention hospital built for cases of tuberculosis. The question comes up, it seems to me, not what kind of medical care each insane patient requires, but what is the best medical care which the State can give him. In the first place there is a large number of chronic, incurable insane. Probably that number is nine-tenths or possibly 95 per cent. of the inmates of State hospitals, and these require only simple, humane, custodial care. For these the official dietary now used in these establishments could easily be carried out. Their maintenance would be reduced to the least possible cost consistent with decency on the part of the State. These patients are simply the break-downs of life, poor miserable creatures, and the State simply takes care of them until the end comes. But there is another class, the curable insane. These curable insane, which do not consist of more than five or ten per cent. of the total in the hospitals, should receive true hospital treatment.

For such patients there ought to be the greatest possible medical skill, there ought to be the best form of nursing and care, regardless of expense, which the character of their disease demands. This would not be a very difficult undertaking in the hospitals. Of these patients probably not more than a small percentage would be considered curable. These could be cared for in a special house, erected on an available plot apart from the main building, constructed so as to give it a homelike ap-

pearance, with no indication of confinement or restraint. Here the real medical work of the institution could be done, and no effort should be spared in this for the recovery of the patients and the solving of any of the unknown problems of insanity. Electricity, massage, baths of all kinds, examination of the blood and excretions, would profitably employ several physicians. The nurses should be especially selected from the general nursing force and paid a salary commensurate with what is expected of them. For these curable cases special treatment should be furnished. The Commission should allow, without criticism, any reasonable amount up to possibly ten dollars a week for such patients.

Thus there would be two forms of treatment. For the so-called chronic insane the cost should be as low as possible conformable with decency and a regard for their general custodial care. For the curable insane, which would consist of five per cent., or possibly ten per cent., we would have practically no limit. There should be special provision for them. The doctor in charge should have to a certain extent leeway in regard to expenditures and in regard to the amount of care which should be shown.

Now I believe that one great trouble in the care of the insane has been, and one of the great troubles which is going to arise in the future is this enormous mass of detail. The superintendents had such a vast mass of detail as to the care of the the insane that they had very little time to devote to the real medical care of the patients. Now if that is true in regard to each individual superintendent, it must necessarily be true of the Lunacy Commission which takes care of a number so much larger. The position of first assistant physician should be made very much more desirable. I would give him a very much larger salary and place him in charge of the medical care of the house erected for the curable insane, and I would leave the superintendent in general charge of the hospital.

With the amount of money which has been expended and the number of patients who have been treated, nothing is more discouraging, it seems to me, than to think of the few advances which have been made in this branch of medical science in the last twenty years. Nothing is more sad than to see such

neglected medical opportunities as are placed before physicians who have accepted positions in State hospitals. It is the fault of the system. They are simply overworked in the custodial care of the chronic insane, and have no time for the cure of the acute curable cases. The dividing off of the State institutions in the manner suggested would stimulate the medical work and would do a great deal more for the general care of the entire body of the insane than anything else. The medical care of the insane cannot be solved entirely by pathological institutions. That is a most desirable thing, but what is accomplished right in the State hospital is that which counts.

Chairman Canfield stated the subject was open for general discussion. No one arising to discuss it, the Rev. Max-Landsberg, D. D., said:

Mr. CHAIRMAN.—There seems to be no disposition to discuss this, and I would therefore move that we give Dr. MacFarlane more time to discuss it. His remarks are so interesting that I think everyone here would like to hear him discuss this subject further.

There being no objection, and no one else expressing a desire to speak on the subject in response to an invitation by the Chairman, Dr. MacFarlane was allowed to continue:

Dr. MACFARLANE.—I thank you, for I am greatly interested in this. I have no personal reason at all, but simply because I appreciate the terrible difficulties.

Then, I want to bring forward a point which is being solved in Albany and which seems to me a solution of the trouble. We have here in Albany, connected with the Albany Hospital, a pavilion for the insane planned by and under the care of Dr. J. M. Mosher. Patients in Albany county who become delirious from the overuse of various forms of poison and those becoming acutely insane, are at once conveyed to this pavilion connected with the Albany Hospital. They are not adjudged insane and carted away at once to some other section of the State, but they are put in this pavilion for the insane. This pavilion is not called the insane pavilion, but simply Pavilion F, and it takes care of twelve or fifteen patients. Now the result is that those

patients who get well in a short time, two or three weeks or a month, are discharged from there, having simply been to the Albany Hospital, just the same as anyone goes there for pneumonia or typhoid fever or some surgical disease. There is no branding him or her as having been insane. It seems to me the solution in regard to the care depends upon that very fact. In every city of this State where the population is over fifty thousand, it would be a very easy matter to have connected with the hospital a pavilion for the insane, in exactly the same way as we have this pavilion for the insane connected with the Albany Hospital. Now when a man is taken insane he can be sent to this pavilion and there kept for three or four weeks to determine whether he is going to get well quickly or whether it is a chronic case. If such persons fail to respond to treatment after a certain length of time they could be sent to a State hospital; if they get well, there will be no imputation attached to these patients in the future. If the State Lunacy Commission or the State authorities in some way could encourage the establishment of these pavilions for the insane all through the State in every city of over fifty thousand in population, where there is a hospital, it would solve the question of the care of the so-called acute insane. It would be a very, very helpful thing, especially if the State hospitals were divided up, as I said, in separate houses, in which they could take care of the acute insane, and the care of these acute insane would be made no longer a financial question. There should be no question of economy in regard to the acute insane, because if a father or a brother, or a sister, is insane, it is not a question of dollars or cents, we are willing to sacrifice everything to get that person well. Why should not the State be equally generous? Why should not the State say, if these men can be saved, for God's sake save them, do not stop at any means. To what better use can the money of the State be put? If they cannot be saved, the State can treat them decently and fairly. Now you cannot arouse enthusiasm, you cannot make a man a good medical officer at Albany. You must have a pride in your State hospitals, you must encourage them. These men must learn and feel that it is really their work. If they feel they are going

to be chief clerks, if they feel everything is done here at Albany, then that will result simply in these men drawing their salaries and doing just as little as possible. They will clean up things, but there will be no increased recovery rate in the insane, no advance in medical science.

Chairman CANFIELD.—In the course of correspondence with managers of institutions for the insane in other States, I addressed a series of questions, and, among others, a question as to whether or not the recovery rate was increasing or decreasing. In reply to that question I received from one of our western States the laconic statement, "Once insane, never cured." Now I suppose we should all agree that that condition of things would simplify the problem of the State insane very much, but according to the old notion that has prevailed in New York, that is not true. "Once insane, never cured." As Dr. MacFarlane has told you, not only is insanity curable in a very substantial number of cases, but our institutions for the insane should be designated hospitals for the insane, and not merely custodial asylums.

We shall now have the pleasure of listening to the reading of a paper by Dr. Pearce Bailey, one of the board of managers of Craig Colony, New York, on "The Insane To-day," and probably we shall be further enlightened as to the curing of the insane and how it can be done.

### THE INSANE TO-DAY.

When Pinel, great in the annals of medicine, greater still in those of philanthropy, took with him to the Bicêtre, Couthon, the Revolutionary leader, for the purpose of securing permission to unmanacle and uncage the inmates of the Paris Asylum, Couthon said to Pinel: "Citizen, art thou mad thyself that thou wilt unchain these animals?" To which Pinel replied: "Citizen, these patients are so unmanageable only because they are robbed of air and liberty. Give them these, and I dare promise a different state of things."

To show how nearly Pinel was right, it is only necessary to compare the condition of the insane to-day with their condition previous to the nineteenth century. The lessons taught by

such a retrospect are so valuable that, though often referred to, they lose nothing in the retelling. Previous to the middle ages, the attitude of medical men toward the insane was, in the main, in the right direction. Beginning with Hippocrates, the theory that they were possessed with devils, for which the one remedy was exorcism with its attendant cruelties, was ridiculed and discountenanced; in its place were recommended medicinal measures, somewhat drastic ones, perhaps, and many of the physical and hygienic methods which are faithful prototypes in many ways of the therapeutic procedures we rely upon to-day. Music, baths, light, fresh air, diversion and occupation were recommended and practised by the leaders of medical thought in the six centuries that elapsed between Hippocrates and Caelius Aurelianus. In those days the physician was the lunatic's best friend, and the trend of thought was progressive and probably effective, though it must have been greatly hampered in execution by the popular prejudice against the insane which even accumulated centuries have failed entirely to eradicate. The promise of these early times was left unfulfilled in the dark ages which followed. The teachings of the early physicians were overlooked or forgotten, and the insane were again universally regarded as possessed of devils, and worthy of little or no human interest which was not punitive, an attitude which lasted almost to our own times. The Renaissance, touching as it did almost every branch of human endeavor and achievement, left psychiatry unexplored. It is true that an asylum for the insane was opened in Valencia in 1409, and that its establishment was followed by that of similar institutions in Christian Europe. But such asylums were often worse than jails, and too frequently little more than pesthouses. The inmates were kept in cells or in chains; they were regarded and treated as wild beasts, and in one place at least were "exhibited to the public on payment of a penny, and they are said to have offered much sport to the visitors who flocked to see them in numbers estimated at not less than 48,000 annually."

Such was the condition of the insane when the science of psychiatry was reborn. With the coming of Pinel, and, after

him, of Esquirol, the increase in the knowledge of diseases affecting the mind began to make itself felt in the practical sphere of treatment, and with succeeding generations of physicians and philanthropists the insane have more and more been regarded and treated as sick people. They are cared for in hospitals in which there is a constantly growing effort to make the surroundings attractive and homelike. The floors have carpets; the windows have curtains; the corridors are light and sunny, and brightened by plants and flowers and singing birds. The bathing facilities are excellent, and cleanliness rules everywhere. The physicians employed in the State hospitals are of high professional standard, and the methods of treatment are those of humanity and common sense. To-day, a disturbed patient, instead of being put in a straight jacket, or rendered insensible by narcotic drugs, is permitted to walk up and down the ward, or is given a warm bath; the depressed patient, instead of attempts to torture him to cheerfulness, is left alone, from the knowledge that melancholia is a self-limited disease. To many of the insane, diversion and occupation are as essential to happiness and welfare as to normal people. In the hospitals, therefore, we find trades, such as farming, gardening, basket making, broom making, etc.; and amusements such as baseball nines, theatricals, bands, concerts and various games. The results of this change of treatment from the treatment before Pinel has justified the prophecy of the great Frenchman.

The insane in State hospitals to-day are, for the most part, quiet people, needing the straight jacket far less than many cases of typhoid fever; amenable to kindness, and susceptible to it; capable of enjoyment and, what is practical, capable of productive labor. Gratifying as these conditions are, in New York State at least, they do not represent the ideal. The President of the State Lunacy Commission has long pleaded for two radical changes in the manner of providing for the insane. These changes consist in centrally located hospitals for the acute cases, and in colonies in farming districts for the chronic cases. These departures have met with the warm endorse-

ment of alienists and medical men generally. They are fully described in *American Medicine for this year*.\* I can only briefly refer to them. Insanity can be roughly divided into acute and chronic. In the acute variety some patients die, others become permanently demented. But a considerable proportion recover, more or less completely. None are hopeless from the outset, and therefore all merit the best we physicians can give. As matters stand to-day, we have no hospitals where such patients can be immediately received, unless they go through the police court. What Dr. Peterson advocates is the establishment in all centers of dense population of psychopathic hospitals, where these acute cases can be received, retained and treated as long as necessary. Not the least of the advantages of the psychopathic hospital would be the facilities it offers for teaching. At present the instruction given to both students and practitioners of medicine is rudimentary and incomplete, chiefly because the insane hospitals are so far from the schools. The result is that while all physicians are called upon from time to time to treat cases of insanity, few of them are fitted to do so. This defect the psychopathic hospital would remedy, as in its wards and in its amphitheatre there would be ample opportunity for demonstrations and clinical teaching. Before the psychopathic hospital can be satisfactorily established, the present lunacy law regarding commitment must be amended. Under the present laws of the State of New York, before an alleged insane person can be placed under the restraint necessary for treatment, an order of commitment must be issued by a judge of a court of record. Under ordinary circumstances, in cities, this can be done in twenty-four hours, though with considerable inconvenience to the examining physicians, and sometimes only by means of the police court. But if the examination takes place the day before a legal holiday and a Sunday, there may be a delay of three days or more. In the rural districts delays occur from similar causes, and also from time lost in going long distances to secure the signature of a judge. Jurists would stoutly oppose any effort which had for its object the making it

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\* NOTE.—Essentials of an adequate system of state care and supervision for the Insane, by Frederick Peterson, M. D. *American Medicine*, Vol. IV, No. 8; pp. 303-305.

possible to secure the commitment of an alleged insane person without judicial order, and, if advisable, inquiry. This difficulty might easily be overcome by granting to a duly licensed institution the right to receive and retain for a few days any person whom two qualified examiners in lunacy declared to be insane. By these means treatment could be promptly instituted, and personal liberty would not be endangered, as the emergency commitment would cover only the time necessary to secure the regular judicial order.

While the psychopathic hospital would necessarily be under State supervision, it would have, I think, the widest sphere of usefulness if it could be a private corporation, like so many of the general hospitals throughout the country. I know of no object more worthy of an adequate building and a generous endowment than such an institution.

The other proposed change, viz., the colonization of the insane, concerns custodial rather than medical care. I will stop only to say of it that anyone who has compared the advantages of colony life with those of institution life is an active partisan of the former; and that experts maintain that the colony will be no more expensive, in the long run, than the institution.

So much for the care of the insane, historic, actual and possible. It leads to the pertinent questions: "What does the best care yield?" "How far is insanity, under the most ideal conditions, curable?" The answer is not satisfactory. Some varieties of mental disease, such as general paresis and secondary dementia we know to be practically hopeless. Contrasted to them, the simpler psychoses, such as mania and melancholia, run a more or less characteristic course of a few weeks or months, at the end of which many of the patients are well enough to be discharged and return to their homes. Many of them resume their occupations, and remain, for years, apparently well. It is commonly said that they are cured. Alienists, however, are becoming more and more chary of how they use the word "cure." Persons who have once been insane seem to acquire, even if they had not had it before, the neuro-

pathic constitution. They are less able to bear the strains and stresses of life than normal people. They break down easily. They frequently have second attacks. This statement is true for the cases in which the history, both personal and parental, is clean. It is still more unassailable for the great rank and file of the insane, who, by their ancestral and personal characteristics show, before any definite outbreak, that their minds were from the beginning perverted or deficient in resistance. The statistics of institutions show a percentage of recoveries varying from 25 per cent. to 35 per cent. But we must realize that these statistics include no guarantee for future immunity, and that they do not assure us that the discharged patients are capable of all the emergencies and demands of life. The more one sees of insanity and the insane, the more is forced upon one the conviction that this affection, more than any other, pursues its victims relentlessly; that once it has manifested itself in an individual, it is ever liable to show itself again in him or in his children. For the good of the race we must look the question squarely in the face, for it seems to me that some of the study and energy which now goes toward ameliorating the condition of the insane should be spent in bringing to more general attention some of the salient truths about this soul-destroying scourge. People, generally, should be more fully informed as to what insanity is, as to how it perpetuates itself, and as to the causes which bring it forth. Medicine's really great discoveries are those which lead to the prevention of disease. Prevention is philosophy, while cure is detail. The highest achievement possible to psychiatry to-day is the inauguration of steps by which insanity may be made to decrease. The task is much more difficult than the eradication of a physical disease. It does not contend with bacteria, but with the closely woven fabric of human life. It has to struggle with motives high and low, with love, pride, ambition, with passion, and with vice. Its best chance of success lies in a more general comprehension of what insanity is, and what its controllable causes are. With pertinent facts clearly in mind, public opinion would more stoutly oppose the marriage of the ineligi-

ble. Parents would be more careful in their sanctions, prospective brides and bridegrooms would think of their offspring as well as of themselves. Two professions especially need a new stimulus in this respect. We hear of clergymen refusing to perform the marriage ceremony by reason of moral unfitness or differences in creed of the contracting parties. But how often does a priest inquire as to fitness for parenthood? Physicians are rarely consulted in these matters. My professional career has been chiefly that of alienist and neurologist. But I can remember but two instances in which my advice was asked in regard to marriage. Yet a physician can be consulted on no more vital point than this. If clergymen more fully realized their responsibility to the State, and if physicians forbade, whether asked or not, when occasion demanded, the result would soon be appreciable even in statistics. More far reaching than such individual interference is the benefit to posterity to be obtained by the colonization of all defectives. We know that insane children spring from parents who are defective as well as from those who are insane. Epilepsy, feeble-mindedness, idiocy, alcoholism, and other forms of degeneracy lead to insanity in the offspring. It is clearly the duty of the State, therefore, to provide means by which child-bearing among defectives may cease. Colonization is the ideal means. The extension of the colony idea is the strongest weapon we have in the combat with insanity. We are started in the right direction. The Craig Colony for epileptics, and the institution at Newark for the custodial care of feeble-minded women during the child-bearing period are models in their way. But they demand immediate enlargement. The colony most needed of all—that for alcoholics—remains to be inaugurated.

As great a menace as the drunkard is to himself, to his fellows and to posterity, he can, under present laws, be deprived of his liberty only when he crosses the line and becomes criminal or insane. His liberty is dear to him, naturally, as without it his vicious craving goes unsatisfied. He consequently contests all attempts to restrain him against his will and is only rarely willing to commit himself. This may be in part due to the

fact that there is no place where he may go, except to asylums, where he is herded in with the insane, with idleness his one vocation. Great are the legal or technical difficulties in providing legally authorized restraint for this class. But I firmly believe that with our increasing knowledge of social pathology and social economics, such restraint for the habitual drunkard will become possible. That committees of inquiry of sufficiently high standing can be found to insure that no person will be deprived of his liberty who is entitled to retain it, and which will be empowered to commit to colony restraint those who are unable to restrain themselves. In the colony for alcoholics all alcohol should be contraband. Thus the colony would be best on an island. It should be large and equipped to provide constant and varied occupation for the colonists. Commitments should be for an indefinite term and voluntary commitments should be on the same terms.

To go further into this question would be to exceed the scope of this paper, and to put an unnecessary tax upon your patience. In conclusion let me again emphasize that while we owe a duty to the insane, we owe a still clearer duty to the race, which we can fulfill only by earnest effort to combat the causes from which insanity springs.

#### DISCUSSION ON THE INSANE TO-DAY.

The discussion was opened by Dr. Charles W. Pilgrim, the superintendent of the State Hospital at Poughkeepsie.

Dr. PILGRIM.—I think there can be but one opinion in regard to the advisability of establishing psychopathic hospitals as suggested by Dr. Bailey. In a recent discussion on this subject before the members of the British Medical Pathological Association, Dr. Clouston, who is probably one of the most experienced men in the world to-day in matters of this kind, said: "Our ordinary hospitals for the insane treat well developed cases of insanity in the very best way known to modern science, but for the incipient cases we have no adequate provision." That is a criticism which applies with equal force to this country and to this State, with the exception already noted of the hospital in Albany.

In spite of the fact that we, who devote our lives to the cure of the insane, have done our best to disseminate the view that the so-called asylum is in reality a hospital for mental diseases, there still exists in the mind of the public a cruel prejudice against these institutions, which often makes it difficult to secure the admission of patients while they are in a curable stage. It is for this reason that I think the establishment of psychopathic hospitals in larger cities would do great good. They would certainly tend to secure earlier treatment and, consequently, improvement in the recovery rate. But while advocating the establishment of psychopathic hospitals, I do not for a minute wish to intimate that there should be the slightest letting up, or interruption, in the development of the ordinary State hospitals for the insane. It would of course be out of question to build psychopathic hospitals in our small towns or in agricultural districts. Consequently the State hospitals must be for these localities what the psychopathic hospital is intended to be for the cities. My idea in regard to an ideal plant would be to have it as Dr. MacFarlane has outlined in his remarks. I think that every large State institution should have, as a part, a small hospital, thoroughly equipped, where every means known to science should be available for the cure of those who come to us while in the curable stage. And in addition there should be convalescent cottages where doubtful cases could be sent for a time, while they were regaining the strength necessary to begin the struggle in the outside world. There should in addition be buildings adapted to the care of the acute, the feeble, the filthy, the noisy, the destructive, the demented, the epileptic, and the consumptive. With psychopathic hospitals established in the large cities, and the State hospitals developed upon the lines suggested, I think we would have nearly an ideal arrangement for the care and treatment of all classes of the insane.

In regard to the curability of insanity, I cannot take quite as hopeless a view as Dr. Bailey has taken. An analysis of the Hudson River State Hospital since its opening nearly 35 years ago shows that 23 per cent. of all the cases that have come there have been discharged as recovered. About 11 per cent.

were discharged as well enough to live outside the institution; nearly 19 per cent. died, and about 47 per cent. remained incurable. In other words, with sufficient accuracy for all ordinary purposes, we see that of every six patients sent to the hospital for the insane, three will remain incurable, one will die and two will recover. Now that does not seem to me to be an altogether hopeless outlook. When disease attacks other organs of the body, such as the lungs, the liver, the kidneys, or the heart, the physician cannot always make a cure; in fact take pneumonia, or such a simple thing as rheumatism, we cannot guarantee there will never be another attack. Neither can we in regard to insanity. So I think when we consider the seriousness of the disease with which we have to deal, our work is not altogether discouraging when we can cure one-third of the cases or, at least, make them well enough to live outside, and make the lives of at least half of the rest comfortable and, in many cases, happy.

In regard to the colonizing of the epileptics, the idiots and the alcoholics I heartily agree. I also think that too much weight cannot be given to the effect of heredity in the production of insanity. It would certainly be a very good thing if we could either by law or argument prevail upon those in whom the taint of insanity exists to remain single, and even though we cannot always have our views heeded—in fact in very few cases will patients come to us for such advice and listen to what we tell them—still it is our duty to endeavor to teach the public in every way possible the dangers of these unions, and, if persisted in, I think in time our teaching will bear fruit. It is of course possible to be too sanguine in regard to matters in which we are deeply interested, but I believe, if the excellent suggestion contained in Dr. Bailey's paper could be carried out, that in a very few years we would notice a sensible diminution in the number of the insane.

Chairman CANFIELD.—Will Dr. A. E. Macdonald speak to the Conference?

Dr. MACDONALD.—I will have to speak without any preparation, Mr. Chairman, but possibly I may be permitted to correct one

or two mistakes, or ask the gentlemen who made them to correct them.

The first that occurs to me is in the statement of Dr. MacFarlane, in regard to the treatment of tuberculosis cases. He rather implied that they were not separated from others in the State hospitals. It may be of interest to him, and to others, to hear that on Ward's Island we have had our tuberculosis cases isolated, and have to-day forty of those in whom the disease is in an active condition in a camp composed of tents, where they have been for considerably over a year, in fact since June of last year.

Dr. Bailey made, if I understood him correctly, a mistake in saying there was no hospital to which the insane patient could be sent in a short period without the intervention of the police court. We, at Ward's Island, take patients, and are only too glad to get them, within a few hours, if proper commitments are prepared and submitted. We immediately send our ambulance to their home and bring them. We don't get as many as we would like to get in that way. We do get a considerable number; the reason we do not get more is due, I think, to the fact to which Commissioner Osborn alluded, that there has been opposition, a desire to have them go through the Bellevue Hospital for certain purposes into which it is not necessary to go. There was a desire on the part of the examiners to have the patients go through the pavilion, instead of coming direct to the hospital from their homes. I trust that under the new management which has been established we will have most of the patients come to us, as they might and ought, direct from their homes.

Upon the general subject of the change in the conduct of the administration of the State hospitals which has resulted from recent legislation, it is proper in view of the fact that all the speakers have alluded to it as tentative, as not far enough advanced to permit of criticism, to pass the subject by, but I am happy to have the opportunity of saying that from my thirty-three years service in the State hospitals, that I have not abandoned the belief that the proper organization was the old one, copied from the English system and modified by the conti-

mental system, which gave the board of managers and the superintendent and the Commission in Lunacy certain powers, each acting as a check upon the other two, and any departure from that method of organization, which gave us three responsible authorities, is in my judgment a mistake.

There is only one other thing to which I wish to refer, and that is the claim of Dr. MacFarlane that the superintendent should be exempted from all duties except the medical ones. If by medical duties are meant the administration and prescription of medicine, they would form a very small part of what is properly the superintendent's duties, as everything about the care of the patient is, in my judgment, of importance, almost as much importance as the giving of mere medical treatment. Take the matter of food, to which reference has more than once been made, what could be more important than that the medical superintendent should have control of that particular branch of treatment? As to the changes that have been made in the administration of food, I can only say that the increase to which Commissioner Osborn alluded, results from action taken only within the past week, and that while it increases the allowance, there is still a very considerable reduction as compared with the amounts which were allowed us prior to that time again. Without going into the matter more extensively, I might say this: The present mode as compared with the former one has been characterized as the difference between the physiological administration of food and the chemical administration of food. In my judgment the difference is rather this: That in the old days the disposition of food was made with the object of saving the patient; nowadays I rather fear that the reverse is the case, the disposition of the patient is made with a view of saving the food.

DR. OLIVER MORSE DEWING.—With regard to the subject of tuberculosis in State hospitals for the insane, which has been touched upon by Dr. MacFarlane and Dr. Macdonald, I would say that in one hospital, namely, the Long Island State Hospital at King's Park, the tuberculosis cases, numbering from seventy-five to one hundred, have been isolated in separate cot-

tages, one for the men and the other for the women, since the year 1893, and that act was carried out at that time, not under the enlightened system of State care, but under the old discarded system of county administration. However, it was done at that time in that institution and has been in vogue ever since.

With regard to the point brought up by Dr. MacFarlane as to the segregation in separate hospital buildings, within the State hospital organization, of the acute insane, keeping them apart from the chronic insane to whom merely custodial care is given, I would say to a certain extent that is now done in the State hospitals, only in many cases with inadequate facilities. In the Long Island Hospital, with which I am more familiar, the acute insane are cared for and treated in a separate building from the chronic insane. They receive a separate special diet, and in addition to that they receive an individual special diet, such as is individually required, and they receive a much larger proportion of medical care than do the chronic insane. For instance in the hospital at Kings Park the acute cases have the attention of one physician to about fifty cases, whereas the chronic insane, receiving custodial care, have the attention of but one physician to about 400 cases, roughly speaking.

Another point in connection with the matter is this: Although overcrowding exists to a lamentable extent in the State hospitals, and especially at Kings Park, to the extent of some 400 cases in the entire institution, that is there are 400 more cases in the institution that can properly be cared for, we do not allow any of the excess to exist in the acute wards. It crowds the chronic wards lamentably, but it does not crowd the acute insane.

Rev. J. H. CONROY, of Ogdensburgh.—I have taken a great interest in the report, especially from the fact that I come from Ogdensburgh and am one of the clergymen who act as chaplains in the St. Lawrence State Hospital, an institution of which this State has every reason to be proud. I have no criticism of its internal management to offer. I can conceive none better. But while it has been stated here that every facility

should be given the insane, and very truly so, in regard to fresh air and exercise and entertainment, it does seem to me that if we can build excellent opera houses in which plays may be presented, a chapel for the accommodation of all denominations might rightfully be erected on the grounds. It does not seem right that religion should be presented from behind the foot-lights, with a background of scenery intended for a theatrical performance, with the clergyman and choir sitting in front of the scenery. It is true some people laugh at the idea of furnishing religious attendance to the insane. I have been for ten years connected with this institution, and I can say to you that if you ever attend any of the services that are given there you will find there very many intelligent faces and as much attention, and perhaps more attention, given to the speaker than is given by people who claim to be very sane. This may not be altogether to the credit of the speaker, nor may it be to the credit of the audience, but I wish to say that it has been stated here that probably from twenty-five to thirty per cent. of these people are curable, and it must be remembered that apart from those that are curable a large number are attacked only now and then during the year; and then again there are others who have hallucinations on one or two subjects, but on other matters are perfectly rational. It does seem to me, therefore, that they ought to have some sort of religious attendance, and if we are going to furnish them every comfort. I think the comforts of religion ought not to be excluded. Every clergyman who is associated with such an institution receives a large number of letters from all over the district to which that institution belongs, urging him to go and see some relative and give such consolation as may be within his province to give. The State does not remunerate him either, or, if so, only in a paltry way. He does not work for a profit, he is not in the business for a financial reward, but for the relief of the unfortunate, and not only for these unfortunates but for the benefit of the attendants of these people. It is a fact that the attendants—in most cases these institutions are removed a considerable distance from a town or city—are not able to attend their respective churches. As it is, none of

them, or very few at least, can go to church except on every third Sunday, and after staying away so much they become careless. It is a fact that the inability to attend service prevents a great many worthy candidates from accepting positions when offered; they find out they cannot attend church and they do not accept.

I think it would be for the interest of the hospital to have a religious institution there, a church of some kind in which all the different denominations might give their services. This will furnish additional comfort and benefit to the insane, as well as be useful in securing a better class of attendants to offer their services to the State. I trust some action will be taken on this matter. I think clergymen of every denomination ought to favor it. I think as well the superintendents of the State hospitals would have no objection. At Craig Colony one chapel has been erected at private expense. It does not seem this should be the case, but if it must be at private expense I think we will find enough well-disposed ladies and gentlemen throughout the State who will be willing to contribute to this very desirable object.

Chairman CANFIELD.—If there are no other speakers, Dr. Bailey will have an opportunity of replying to Dr. Macdonald and maybe of correcting his mistakes, and I am sure the Conference will also be glad to hear a little further on the subject of the curability of insanity. According to the computation or estimate of competent experts, I understand that if an inmate in an insane asylum is returned cured to the community, it means a saving of \$550 a year. Now, during the fiscal year preceding the last one, there were some 1,200 recoveries, 1,209 to be accurate, which means a saving to the State of about \$700,000. Certainly a very substantial sum, and one which would go very far to offset the reduced expenditures which it was expected might be effected through reduction in the dietary from one egg to one-half an egg a day.

Dr. PEARCE BAILEY.—In regard to one or two points upon which I wish to speak, one in regard to what Dr. Macdonald mentioned—I regret I did not make my meaning plain. He

said he was willing to go after or receive properly committed patients. That is the point. A very large share of the delay comes in getting the papers approved, getting the commitment formulated and the judge's signature. I can only repeat that this may take at least three days and it is a very undesirable delay in an acute case, and I have found it so in many cases. As far as I know there is no means of abating it except by law.

Now one mistake in Dr. Pilgrim's statement. I think he rather misunderstood me. I surely do not wish to pose before this Conference as a prophet of evil. Of course I realize that many cases of acute mental disturbances lasting weeks or months recover entirely, and possibly for years, or possibly never, show any return of insanity. The percentage of these cases to the total number of insane cases is very considerable. All such patients are worthy of the very best medical skill and care, for their own sake as well as for reasons of economy. What I had in mind was that I question whether a person who had once been actually insane enough to be committed to an insane hospital should take upon himself the responsibility of parentage.

The second session of the Conference was adjourned by the President at 12.35 p. m.

### THIRD SESSION.

*Wednesday Afternoon, November 19, 1902, Senate Chamber.*

The third session of the Conference was called to order at 3 p. m., by President Stewart. The first business transacted was the reception of the report of the Committee on Time and Place, which was presented by the Rev. Dr. Max Landsberg, its Chairman, as follows:

DR. LANDSBERG.—The Committee on Time and Place met this morning, and an invitation being extended from Buffalo it was unanimously decided that the next meeting should be held in that city.

So far as the time is concerned, some representation has been made that it may perhaps be advisable to change the time to either two weeks earlier or later, and therefore the commit-

tee decided to leave the appointment of the time to the Executive Committee.

The report of the committee was unanimously adopted.

The first subject considered at this session was "The Care and Relief of Needy Families in Their Homes," and the Conference listened to the following report of the committee on that subject, which was made by Hon. Thomas W. Hynes, Chairman of the Committee, who presided during the time devoted to this subject.

#### REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE CARE AND RELIEF OF NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

It seems to me that to all of us gathered here this afternoon from the various sections of the State, no subject could have been selected which is more interesting or more beneficial of discussion than that which it is my pleasure to submit to you.

Interested as we are in various charitable works and brought together as we have been by one and the same object, it seems especially appropriate that we should devote a portion of this, the third New York State Conference of Charities, to the consideration of the care of dependant families in their own homes.

To those of us coming from the largest cities of the State, where poverty exists to a greater degree than it does in the less thickly populated sections, the subject should be particularly attractive. We may assume, without fear of contradiction, that no form of charitable work is nobler, or more likely to be of more permanent benefit to the recipients of it, than that relief wisely and prudently given to families in their own homes.

The public relief of the poor in places other than their own homes has always seemed to me uncalled for and out of place, as it has a tendency, I believe, to make paupers of them, besides exposing their poverty and want to the eyes of their fellow-men. For this reason, I believe that assistance quietly given in their own homes is by far the best and most charitable.

The reason for this is that in aiding the family in this way we save it from disruption, preventing in many cases perhaps

the parents from entering the poorhouse, or the children being committed to charitable institutions, and in doing so we follow the order of nature, the Divine plan, and merely strengthen the system which nature herself has established.

It is well for us to remember that the family besides being a Divine institution is also recognized as the unit of society, and hence whatever tends to preserve and strengthen family life adds to the stability of the commonwealth. The breaking up of a respectable family is a public misfortune to be avoided when possible, both for the sake of the individuals composing it and for society at large.

This should be the first thought in the mind of the visitor. This I say after an experience of many years in one of the largest and most practical organizations of charity in the country (The St. Vincent de Paul Society), and the absolute necessity of keeping the family together has also been impressed upon me during my connection with the Department of Correction, New York city.

In this State various forms of public outdoor relief have been experimented with from time to time, and although the theory in itself seemed almost perfect in administration, it proved a great evil and was wisely abandoned by the State at the earnest solicitation of the charitable societies themselves.

It would seem, therefore, that we have a double obligation in this matter. We have prevented the State from offering direct aid to needy families in their own homes, and we are therefore bound to see that the necessary assistance is forthcoming from some other quarter. However, it seems to me that an argument of this sort is unnecessary to the practical charity worker, and I feel that we all believe that the work of assisting poor families in their own homes is a necessary and praiseworthy one.

The question, however, for consideration this afternoon is how best to carry on this work so that those whom we aid in the time of their temporary distress or misfortune may not be pauperized by the assistance they receive, but rather strengthened and encouraged to take up again the battle of life. We must avoid two evils, the pauperization of the family in

need, and its classification simply as a case with a large yield of sociological and physiological facts.

The visitor comes to the needy family with a definite purpose — to relieve the temporary financial distress that sickness or other misfortune has produced. Relief to restore the family to its normal condition of self-support must be given, and given in such a way that it will not be patent to the neighborhood. But the work of the visitor does not end here; in fact it only begins.

In all cases, I believe, he should carefully inculcate habits of personal and household cleanliness, not only because of the physical, but likewise for the moral, advantages to be gained by so doing.

A visitor should also encourage industry and thrift, and make every effort to lighten the burden of the already unfortunate family.

What I desire to lay particular stress on is the care and attention which should be given to the children. It should be our earnest effort at all times to improve their moral surroundings and prevent them from being brought up in ignorance.

A conscientious visitor, however, makes a study not alone of poverty in general nor in the abstract, but of each family of which he takes charge. He notes their dispositions, their wants, their moral infirmities,

It not infrequently happens that the moral infirmities are at the root of the trouble, and for this reason a visitor of the same religious faith as the family should be assigned when possible. In this way they will have a common meeting ground on at least one subject, and their progress and mutual understanding will be hastened.

It is held by many who have given considerable thought to this subject, that it is also a great advantage to have visitors drawn from about the same rank of life, or at least not far remote from that of the family they visit, so that their own experience will largely aid them as to the best way to render the necessary assistance. No doubt this phase of the subject will receive attention in the papers which will be read during the Conference.

We cannot assume that the poverty of a family which makes outside assistance necessary is always brought on by preventable causes. In such a state of society as largely obtains in all our cities, with the great majority of wage workers earning barely sufficient to support their families even while regularly employed, sickness or lack of employment may soon bring a self-supporting family to destitution. Those who are as yet novices in this branch of charitable work will soon discover that there is not one sole and fixed type of poverty, but that the miseries and sufferings of the poor vary according to their causes, and so, too, the nature of the relief to be offered necessarily changes with the circumstances of each case.

One thing is certain, if we are to do any real good among the poor we should have first of all a large and generous sympathy which would make us love them and treat them as brothers, and also help us to make allowances for their shortcomings and failings. It is well for us at times to picture ourselves placed in the same environments and surrounded by similar circumstances as these poor individuals, and who of us could with certainty say that he would have risen superior to them?

Experience proves that the religious influences with which the years of their childhood have been surrounded leave lasting impressions, and we can often use these early impressions as foundation stones for the work of character rebuilding.

As has been well said by a writer on the subject: "In a state of poverty surrounded by temptations and trials, the soul requires more than under any other circumstances to be sustained by the recollection of its origin, the prospects of the future, and the feeling of its dignity when it is constantly bent to the earth by physical necessities and the imperative laws of animal life. In such cases the esteem of others should remind it that despite the lowliness of its fortune it came from God and ought to return to Him."

It will be generally found that the effort to produce moral amendment is the surest and most direct way to the extinction of pauperism, or as a clever Frenchman eloquently put it: "By the law of Providence every reform of the soul profits the body;

It enriches the person with merits when it strips it of defects. In proportion as you take away a vice from a man, you remove from him a cause of ruin; in proportion as you impart a virtue, you remove a chance of misery, chase from his heart selfishness, idleness, pride and the craving of sensual indulgence. He will diminish his useless or dangerous pleasure; he will augment the subsistence of his family, the education and well being of his children; he will save from his earnings what he formerly spent in dissipation, and thus at the same time increase his fortune and his health."

Let me add that in this work of relieving the poor at their own homes the advantages are not all on one side; it is a case of "where he who gives is also blessed."

All of us have learned much in our intercourse with the families whom we have been sent to assist; we have learned lessons of patience, of cheerfulness and courage under adversity by seeing these virtues practiced under difficulties which made them seem almost impossible, and we have been more than repaid for any trifling sacrifices we may have made.

I have no hesitation, therefore, in saying that much good can be accomplished by men and women engaged in the common business of the world without the least injury to their affairs, or the slightest neglect of their social or political duties. Should the visitor meet with difficulties and contradictions, or should his resources seem wholly insufficient for the work which lies before him, he must not be discouraged, but pursue his charitable undertakings with a quiet mind, trusting to Divine Providence to point out a way to succeed, and to supply the means which his necessities demand.

It is true that we shall not be able to eradicate all the evil or relieve all the want which surrounds us, but if we practice faithfully that spirit of kindness and self-abnegation which constitutes the basis of true charity, we shall in spite of obstacles become the channel of much good to those who sit in the shadow of misery and poverty.

Let us remember, too, that besides offering help in the way of food, clothing, money, etc., much greater good and more lasting benefit can very frequently be accomplished by giving

friendly and timely advice, and it has often, too, been impressed upon me that in like manner as idleness and laziness have frequently been the cause of much of the poverty and misfortune we see around us, so do the employment of the body and occupation of the mind tend to do away with much of this distress.

When, therefore, it lies in our power to render assistance in this way, no form of charity productive of such great good can be found. Poverty, suffering and distress will ever be with us, but it is well for us in our limited way to relieve the wants of the poverty-stricken family as much as possible, and to try to make their journey through life as easily borne as it can be. Remember, at all times, that the family must not be disrupted, but that if possible it should be kept together because the State looks to it as the unit of society; to the family it owes its growth, progress and development. Teach habits of cleanliness, habits of morality, of thrift and of industry. Make of each case a separate study, because no two are alike, and what to one may be charity may to another be the means of further suffering, as all of us have no doubt at different times experienced. Be sympathetic at all times, and in this way the poor and the unfortunate will see they are dealing not with one who has come to offer words of censure to their already unhappy lot, but rather with one who has come as a friend to cheer them in their misfortune and to urge them on in their struggle for existence. Consider the question of morality in each case, because with immorality there will surely come distress in some form or other, and with morality, in many cases, will come the extinction of pauperism. Teach them that the rich are rather their friends than their enemies, and show them by word and action that one can be happy even in the midst of the greatest temporal sufferings.

If you accomplish this end life to them will seem brighter and the world less selfish, and you in turn cannot help but feel satisfaction in having lightened, for a time at least, their heavy burden.

I cannot bring my paper to more appropriate conclusion than with the words of a distinguished preacher who says: "This is the universal charity which constitutes the true Christian

spirit; we must not be selfish, that is, restricted within our personality in our love. It must extend to those with whom we have special relations; it must not be restricted even within this sacred fellowship, but must extend itself to the social and civil community of which we form a part. It must not be confined within the limits of a nation or of a race, but embrace all mankind without exception. Not merely the virtuous, the enlightened, the favored portion of the human race, but the most degraded, ignorant and unhappy classes of men."

Do these things and you will be offering charity in its noblest and best form.

A paper on "The Opportunities of the Visitor," was then read by Rabbi Israel Aaron, D. D., of Buffalo, N. Y.

### THE OPPORTUNITIES OF THE VISITOR.

In presenting this brief discussion of so important a matter, I do not make the slightest pretense of saying anything new to this Conference, composed as it is of men and women whose experience, and whose study of the great sociological question, of which my theme is a part, have given them the authority of expert utterance. My only justification is that what I may say, and even the errors I may make, will stimulate others to give us the benefit of their mature judgment and wider experience. However clearly the principles dominating the administration of charity are understood by the student and investigator, the great body of the people, and by far the greater number of benevolent societies and institutions still adhere to older ideas and unscientific methods. It is the office of such conferences as this to give publicity to better conceptions and methods, and further the harmonization of philanthropic activities on the highest levels.

It is essentially important that those who come into direct contact with the needy, the unfortunate and the degenerate, should possess a certain degree of understanding in the application of modern methods and principles of charity. To overestimate the value of the expert visitor is impossible.

In one of the Scandinavian Sagas, the gods are represented as punishing Loki for the murder of Balder. Loki is bound,

beyond the power of release, by the entrails of his son, converted into massive chains, to the rocky floor of a cavern. Above him a serpent is suspended with diabolical ingenuity, so that the venom may fall drop by drop upon his face, causing him to die by slow torture. But Sigyn, his wife, comes to his rescue. She sits by him day after day, unwearied, watchful, while in her hand she holds a cup to catch the venom-drops as they fall. And there she will sit, shielding the prostrate captive till Ragnarok.

The occupation of Sigyn mirrors the function of the visitor. All about us lie the unfortunates, captives, bound so often by chains forged out of the frailties of their own flesh and blood, prone, and incapable of helping themselves, while the poison eats deeper and deeper. It should be the aim of the visitor to shield them from what is vitiating their lives drop by drop; to guard them against those malicious influences which little by little will compass their spiritual and physical destruction. Far more than with the former purpose of providing the means of keeping body and soul together, the visitor is charged with the complex responsibility of bringing those to be helped nearer an appreciation of the dignity of life, nearer the passion for breaking one's own chains, nearer the love of true freedom, nearer the disinclination to accept what is not the fruit of one's own hand.

We are driven to the inevitable conclusion that the charity worker is a workman requiring certain definite knowledge and qualities, in short, a measure of expertness. As in all departments of industry, there are gradations in the ability and expertness of the workmen who engage in the great labor of helping those in need. There are the poor, the passable, the good, the better, and the best. Not everyone desiring to do something in a charitable way is equipped with the things required for producing the most beneficial results. Nay, many, even of unquestionable goodness of heart, only accentuate and establish more firmly the evils they come to ameliorate.

The ideal charity agent is the volunteer visitor of capacity. Though this species may not be too abundant, it is quite evi-

dent that the qualities of mind and heart, and the ability required for good charity work, may be found in abundance. There is plenty of material for the making of good volunteer visitors. Perhaps the most needed enterprise which any charity society can undertake is the establishment of a short systematic course of instruction and training for those willing to go into the homes of the needy. Every community contains a goodly number eager to take such a course, and thus a splendid body of workers could be created to engage in the competent supervision of all cases requiring aid, and do yeoman's service in the regeneration of the submerged. Let them get their knowledge of modern principles of philanthropy not from sporadic and spasmodic remarks, but from the lips of some one whose ability and experience command consideration, and whose utterances are authoritative.

Thus all so-called charity work would be performed most advantageously both as to helped and helper, if it were done by volunteer visitors. Not that the present plan of employing paid agents need be abolished, but that it may be modified. The function of the agent should be pedagogic. The agent's grasp of the sociological problem as it affects the submerged should enable him to be a good teacher, and make him an efficient director of willing hands — a man, in short, to whom any one of a band of volunteer visitors could turn for counsel.

There is a vast difference between the consequences of a visit to a home by a paid agent and of that of a visitor clearly actuated by a native impulse to help. For the true visitor is not the emissary of any society, but the agent of the most Merciful God. Yet the ideal visitor is at the same time an agent applying to a particular case the best science and clearly established principle evolved from experience and study of poverty, pauperism and crime. The plain purpose of the paid agent is to investigate and report what justification there may be for acceding to demands for help; to ferret out fraud; to find out the truth concerning the applicant. But the visitor should fare forth with the object of alleviating and correcting the conditions which created the cry for help. Not that remedial measures inevitably effect amelioration or cure, but

that should be the principle underlying the visitor's pilgrimage to unfortunate homes. If the case be one which by misrepresentation and falsehood endeavored to procure help not merited, it is not simply to be repudiated and left incontinently to the further whims of fortune. The visitor's concern does not end when the case has been found "unworthy." A determined attempt at elucidating the disgrace of being "unworthy," and at inducing moral betterment, will unquestionably bring results beneficial to society.

The visitor must be prepared to do the thinking for the people under investigation, or, what is better, stimulate their thought. I believe I am justified in stating that one of the highest aims of the visitor is to inspire those gravitating to dependence with a desire to find and give meaning to their lives; to make them think—and so repair, strengthen or create a consciousness of the higher self. In a great many instances people requiring a visitor's attention are like the little boy reciting his reading lesson. He lumbers along in a monotonous, halting tone—passion, love, pity, anger—all voiced in the same listless, vacant utterance—"Give me liberty or give me death," like "There was a King of Thule." But the teacher exclaims: "Look at the words! Think of what they mean!" Immediately there is a change of tone and modulation. He has comprehended and is ready to transmit the thought. So must those ready to slip into the depths be taught to read the book of life. Let the visitor give them not only the treasure wherewith to support life, but the thought to treasure its meaning. There must be no merely perfunctory activity. The visitor must consider the purpose of the work; study the individuals visited, and analyze the situation, the possibilities of the soil, and the sort of plants it can best develop.

As an ultimate consideration, the question of alleviating the physical wants of the poor is certainly a minor one as far as the majority of cases are concerned, except in times of famine and depression. The world has never grudged a loaf to the hungry, or a garment to the naked. It delights in such giving. But that is but an easy and short-sighted way of discharging

our philanthropic obligations. There is nothing more facile than to put one's hand in one's pocket. Food, rent, clothing are needed. Let them be supplied. Yet before that is done the visitor has certain tasks to perform, and when these necessities are supplied a still more difficult task follows. First, the cause of the present unhappy situation must be analyzed. Is it to be charged to something in the mental, moral, or physical make-up of the applicant for aid? Is it the result of temporary and external conditions, of the accidents of environment, of clouded or distorted vision, of bad habits, or of any one of the thousand powers that dethrone and debase man? When these questions have been answered then comes the still more important query "How is relief to be administered?" In answering this every agency must be properly appreciated. By a rational regard for those intermediate steps which lie between the giving of alms and the highest kind of help, the building up of the consciousness of the higher self is furthered. Before every other means, the ability latent or more or less apparent in the individuals of the family visited must be utilized. Then the help derivable from relatives, friends, and other personal relationships or connections must be invoked. And this procedure must continue until all the agencies—from the most desirable to the least—for amelioration and improvement have been employed.

Most of the errors with which the visitor comes in contact proceed from mistakes, blunders and failings which may be classified roughly under a few heads: 1, economical; 2, physical; 3, moral; 4, intellectual; 5, circumstantial and accidental. It would be interesting to discuss the opportunities afforded the visitor to improve and reform when he or she have satisfied themselves as to which of the categories, the failure to get along may be attributed. Suppose, to refer briefly to one head, it was economical shortcoming. In such cases how much can be done by teaching the family to make wages go as far as possible; by improving their ideas as to procuring, repairing, and taking care of apparel, etc.; or, let us suppose the visitor discovers there has been mismanagement in the utilization and

direction of the energies of the family—some such case as the following, a common variety: I remember a peddler, a strong fellow, able to carry a large pack with ease, but with no mercantile instincts or abilities. He was set up in business a number of times, but naturally failed to provide for his family. An intelligent visitor rightly concluded that it was a case of square peg in a round hole, and procured for him a situation requiring essentially bone and muscle, and less cerebration. He has steady work and fair wages. The troubled look has departed from his heavy face, and when he goes to work he leaves in his home a happy family comfortably sustained by his earnings.

In cases where physical reasons retard self-sustenance, the right sort of visiting may prove radically reformatory. Take the hygienic phase of this division of ills. How much may be done by insisting on correct ideas in procuring and preparing food, in pointing out the ease of maintaining cleanliness and its efficacy in preventing disease, and so saving physicians' bills and cost of medicine. I saw a well-meaning mother, who lived in a few rooms with her large family, take several loaves, which she had been baking, from the oven of the stove and place the clean, sweet-smelling bread with one end resting on the floor and the other leaning against the stove. I tried to impress her with the dangers lurking in that rather unclean floor, but I doubt whether I succeeded. Such cases abound, and require steady attention.

Applying the procedure here inadequately indicated, the care of all the families whose tendency is downward may be covered if the charity forces of a city are properly organized and the workers well taught. A visitor, unless of exceptional energy and capacity, should not accept the supervision of more than one difficult case, but the supervision should be unintermitting, radical and comprehensive. One family wisely directed and counseled by a visitor is a liberal contribution to the moral and economical value of a community; facilitating the solution of sociological problems and adding to the general happiness.

## DISCUSSION ON THE OPPORTUNITIES OF THE VISITOR.

Chairman HYNES.—I am sorry, ladies and gentlemen, to be obliged to announce that we are in receipt of a letter from Congressman J. J. Fitzgerald of Brooklyn, who had promised to open the discussion on this paper this afternoon, stating that he is detained on account of sickness; but I have great pleasure in asking the Rev. Dr. White, of Brooklyn, to open the discussion.

Rev. WILLIAM J. WHITE, D. D., Supervisor of Catholic Charities, Brooklyn.—The limited time that is at my disposal prevents me from more than thanking Rabbi Aaron for his thoughtful paper upon the opportunities of the friendly visitor. It seems to me there is one phase of work among the poor that cannot be too distinctly emphasized, and that is the keeping in view the purpose that brings us into the lives of the poor. Miss Mary Richmond has said, in her excellent work on the friendly visitor, "friendly visiting means intimate and continuous knowledge and sympathy with a poor family's joys, sorrows, opinions, feelings and entire outlook of life. It is the establishing, therefore, of a personal relationship between the visitor and the visited, between the strong and the weak, and if it is to be helpful it must grow and develop according to the laws of friendship as friendship is understood in the ordinary intercourse of men." It must be, first of all, in its origin and purposes, natural. If those we want to help distrust us, distrust our motives, then we may help them, we may bridge over the financial distress that has been the occasion of our introduction to the family, but we cannot get further into their lives. They may thank us for that help, but the doors of the inner sanctuary of their lives will never open to receive us.

Now, it seems to me that organized charity, with its elaborate system of investigation and the caution with which it administers material relief, is weak in this essential feature.

Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House, Chicago, has put the situation in a nutshell when she says: "Even those of us who feel most sorely the need of more order in altruistic effort and see the end to be desired, find something distasteful in the juxtaposition of the words 'organized' and 'charity.'" We say in

defense we are striving to turn this emotion into a motive, that pity is capricious and not to be depended upon; that we mean to give to it the dignity of conscious duty. But at bottom we distrust a little a scheme which substitutes a theory of social conduct for the natural promptings of the heart, even although we appreciate the complexity of the situation. The poor man who has fallen into distress when he first asks aid instinctively expects kindness, tenderness, consideration and forgiveness. If it is the first time, it has taken him long to make up his mind to take the step. He comes somewhat bruised and battered, and instead of being met with warmth of heart and sympathy he is at once chilled by an investigation and an intimation that he ought to work. To borrow a felicitous phrase of Miss Addams, our "intellectual perceptions" are apt to be developed at the expense of our natural impulses. And where this is the case, we may aid distress but we shall never be a factor in building up character.

The special weakness of organized charity, it seems to me, is to dwell a little too much on the "organized" and too little on the "charity," to look on applicants for relief as so many "cases" with a large yield of facts from which statistics are computed and theories constructed. Statistics and sympathy have little or nothing in common, and yet if we are to come into the lives of the poor and lift them out of the meanness and degradation of their surroundings it must be through sympathy and not through statistics. I recognize the fact that there must be some investigation, that the heart and head must work in union, but I do protest against unnecessary investigation, against an investigation, for example, that took place in New York city last summer. A poor mother wanted to send her two children upon one of the excursions that was given by one of the several charitable organizations of New York city. She applied for that purpose to one of the bureaus, and a gentleman who was listening heard at least fifty-three questions asked that mother. After the necessary preliminaries of the name, etc., he began to find out the present history, and for one generation at least back, of the father and mother on both sides and then the religion, and when he found out they were

Catholics, he wanted to know if they confessed or did not confess, and finally, after having gone through these fifty-three questions, he said: "Well, we will see about the excursion."

Now, that is not a type, I am sure, of investigation; it is investigation run mad, but it shows a tendency to develop this side of charitable work at the expense, perhaps, of the sympathetic side. In its haste, it seems to me, to get away from the carelessness in giving help which marked the earlier days of charitable efforts, and which in reality perpetuated dependence, organized charity is in danger of running to the other extreme and becoming too scientific and too cautious in its method of administering relief. The visitor, therefore, who would bring the poor family into normal relations with society must avoid two extremes, too little and too much investigation. He must keep his mental perceptions in their proper place, and if he is to be lavish of anything, let him not be lavish with questions, but rather of himself, of his sympathy. The more nearly he can gain the point of view of his helpless charges, the point from which they look out on the world, the more easily will it be possible for him to be a real element of helpfulness in their uplifting. His sympathy will be genuine and effectual. It may not be possible to classify his work, it may not be possible to put down on paper and figure in an annual report just what he has done, but his work will be real, his work will be productive, his charity will be of the kind of which St. John and St. Paul spoke.

Now, there are two other questions that have been suggested in the course of the reading of the paper which I will touch upon very briefly.

First of all, it seems to me that a good deal of the success of the St. Vincent de Paul Society has been due to recruiting its members from almost the same walk of life as the poor whom they help. In many instances, at least, members who have done charitable work have been recruited from the walk of life of those they are helping, so the point of view of the visitor and the visited is the same. These visitors have fought the same battles, have had to overcome the same obstacles, and therefore they can bring into their work a sympathy of purpose that no one belonging to a

higher stratum of society, no matter how well disposed he may be, can.

Then, too, another thing. Friendly visitors ought not to be wolves in sheep's clothing, as some unconsciously are. It seems to me, at least, they don't express our idea of the term friendly visitor. They come with loaves and fishes in one hand and they steal from the children of the poor the faith in which they have been reared with the other.

These are a few points which it seems to me have application to the paper which has been read.

Mr. FREDERIC ALMY, Buffalo.—With only five minutes, I want to give one minute to the subject of organized charity, and the rest to volunteer visitors.

Chairman HYNES.—We will give you one minute more; we will give you six minutes then.

Mr. ALMY.—No, five is enough. What I have to say has application simply to organized charity as I have seen it. I have no sympathy with any abuses that may creep into organized charity in the name of a statistical Christ, but I believe that organized charity grows daily more warm-hearted,—that it is like organized music. If music is played it is well to have it without discord. By organization you get concerted action, and so by marshaling the forces of charity you get something useful. St. Thomas Aquinas declared, "Charity, chief of all virtues, ceases to be even a virtue if wise order departeth from it." We want wise, hard-headed, not soft-headed, charity. Of course, it has to be soft-hearted. At first there was a reaction against too much relief, and the fault was to ask too many questions and then not aid. Mr. Lock, of London, said it was like using a harrow where you had no seed to put in. We want to be warm-hearted and sympathetic. The inquiry is to find out how to help wisely and how much. We were not organized to give relief because there were other societies to give relief. We are merely a central separate organization to aid the other charitable societies. Our purpose is not to help the poor directly. We are helping those who help the poor. Our object in Buffalo

is to increase, to organize and to educate the amount of unpaid voluntary personal service given to the poor. We want to make that personal service wiser. We believe we can do the most good in that way. So we are continually trying to increase the personal service given to the poor. We run after the visitor more than after the poor family. We are trying to increase and organize the system of unpaid service for the poor. We know we are doing it. We are getting slowly a little army of visitors who can, wisely, intelligently and patiently help the poor. What they need is love, patience, courage and humility. Love of humanity; courage to do hard things; patience that will wait for a long time without results, seeing nothing coming from the work, but believing good work will in time have some results; humility that will help without any thought of thanks, without any wish for thanks or gratitude; and these come from organized charity, which is hard-headed but not hard-hearted.

Mr. EDWARD T. DEVINE, New York.—I think I recognize the incident to which Father White in his address a moment ago referred. Believing in frankness and in getting the record as nearly complete as possible, I should like to say that if I do recognize it—and I think I am not mistaken—the interview in which an applicant for a fresh air excursion ticket was asked so many questions, among others whether she confessed to a priest, occurred in one of the offices of the society of which I am the executive.

I said I believe in two things, in frankness and in getting the record complete, and what is needed in order to get the record complete is to say that the particular gentleman who was responsible for that interview was discharged from his position even before the representative of the St. Vincent de Paul Society who had overheard that conversation had appeared to tell me about it. (Applause.) It was not an instance, Mr. Chairman, of organized charity run mad. It was not an interview according to instructions, not according to precedent or custom, not according to the manner in which any of my associates is expected to do his work. It was actually, in the

most charitable way I can put it, an instance of a particular individual, in the perfectly literal sense of the term, having gone mad and not being responsible for his actions.

Organized charity, Mr. Chairman, needs no defense. We all believe in it. Some of us like to call it by one name and some by another. I felt really under considerable obligation to Bishop Doane last night when he gave us a new expression for the thing in which we all believe, when he used the word discipline instead of the word correction. I like myself the terms that Mark Hopkins uses in his splendid work, *Law of love and love as a law*. "Law and love," he says, "and thus we marry them, the two mightiest forces in the universe." It is law and love united we believe in. It is order and charity, and I believe that in theory and in practice there is little difference among us as to the way in which the poor should be helped.

Mr. LEE K. FRANKEL, New York City.—Mr. Chairman, the subject is one regarding which I personally am so much at sea that I hardly venture to intrude any opinion I may have before an audience of this kind.

Possibly the one mistake we make in a discussion of this kind with reference to the friendly visitor and with reference to what has been termed the paid agent, is the fact that we lose sight of a very distinct differentiation in the work of the two. It is an unfortunate thing that in the development of organized charity the paid agent was originally the friendly visitor. In other words he was a volunteer in the general relief society and when the work grew to be very onerous the volunteer became the paid worker and took the duty upon himself as a life profession. The distinction between the paid worker and the friendly visitor is best exemplified by an illustration of the difference between a physician and nurse. When a member of our family becomes ill, we do not trust ourselves to administer medicines, since we do not possess that necessary specialized medical knowledge which fits us to undertake a task of this kind. In such an emergency we need the services of a paid agent namely the physician. To do his duty properly, to do justice to his patient and to give the required treatment it is necessary for

him to make a careful study of the patient's history in order to effect a positive diagnosis. Eventually, under such care in most instances the patient gets well; convalescence sets in and now comes the opportunity for the nurse,—most frequently a member of the family. The care and attention which he may give to the patient puts him rapidly on the road to recovery.

The paid worker, with his special training, may be compared to the physician and the friendly visitor to the nurse. This should be the relation of the paid worker and the friendly visitor in the treatment of our poor. There comes a time in the lives of some of our unfortunates when they become dependent. It is unfortunate, but it is so. The fact of their dependence brings them in contact with some organization created especially for their relief. In order to determine what such relief should be, carefully trained knowledge is a pre-requisite. It is at this stage that the family should come in contact with what we have termed a paid agent. Trained agent would be the better term. The necessary relief having been given, there comes the opportunity for the friendly visitor. Such a visitor should, under no circumstances,—I think the Conference knows this so thoroughly that it is idle for me to repeat it,—the friendly visitor should not come in contact with the family from the standpoint of relief.

I have been particularly impressed to-day with the remarks that were made both by Rabbi Aaron and Dr. White as to the advisability of having the friendly visitor as nearly as possible of the same stratum of society as the other. I may possibly have been more unfortunate than others, but it is a fact that I cannot gainsay, that, notwithstanding the best methods, it has frequently been a most difficult task for visitors whom I have known, with all the sincerity and all the love they have put into their work, to come into close contact with our poor for the simple reason that they represented a different mode of life, different thoughts, different ideals from the applicants themselves, and for that reason they are frequently looked upon in the light of suspicion and the good that they do is nullified by the fact that it is taken for patronage and not for love.

I have further found that the thought brought out here so clearly can to some extent be attempted and carried out. If I may have a minute or two, Mr. Chairman, it may be interesting to state an experiment which was tried in the city of New York recently along these lines, where an attempt to reach the family was not made through the adults in the family but through the children. We have taken certain families that we knew to be dependent, in which there are young men and young women growing up into manhood and womanhood. We have been fortunate enough to have an organization made up of young men and young women, earnest, intelligent, conscientious individuals, who practically are on the same equality in life, live in the same houses, have the same thoughts and the same ideals as the poor dependent families that are brought to our notice. I have known of no work that we have done within the past three years that has been so gratifying in results as those which come through the friendly visiting done by the members of the above organization in the families of the young men and young women intrusted to their care. One member came to me the other day and told me the story of his work with a boy, eighteen years old, whom he has been seeing on an average of three or four times a week during the past spring and summer. They live in the same block. He managed by some device to become acquainted with the young man, so the applicant has no knowledge that the visitor has any connection whatever with our institution. Last week he was taken by this young man to visit some relatives, and he was introduced to the relatives as my *friend*, Mr. So. and So. In other words, the visitor has gained a foothold in that household, with that young man and with his family, which could not possibly have been gained in any other way, because he is the friend, the personal friend and companion of the young man who has been intrusted to his care, and the result has been most gratifying. In the last four months the visitor has managed to get this young fellow to change his position, and instead of earning four dollars a week he now earns nine dollars a week, and the family instead of being dependent upon us for the rent, to-day are independent. The

young man has been induced, simply through friendly counsel and advice, to join a club in connection with an educational institution in New York city, and he attends four nights a week. I cite this simply to show how much can be done. I feel that this point might possibly be brought out more strongly — how much can be done by bringing the friendly visitor, with whom we wish to intrust these young men, from the same stratum of society to which they belong.

MR. WILLIAM I. NICHOLS.— I want to express my very strong appreciation of the fine address or paper we have had from Rabbi Aaron; if there were in our State a good many men with the clear idea of the duty of the friendly visitor he has expressed we should be very greatly benefited by that fact. I think he was right in intimating that the main object of the friendly visitor consists not in what he may give or do for the person, but in the service he may render in imparting courage to acquire power of self-help. When sometimes I have sat down and have tried to think over the effect of the things that are given to the poor, it seems to me that we altogether overestimate the benefits that may come with the distribution of these things; the relief is almost always inadequate. It seems to me that oftener than not it is worse than useless. The amount he contributed has rather hindered than helped the friendly visitor in getting close to the family, because the things given them were insufficient at the best. He should help the family by his influence. It is only by getting their confidence that he can help the family to become self-supporting. In other words, by putting himself in the place of the family, and presenting his views from their standpoint, he gets an influence in this poor family which he can gain in no other way. It is not what he gives them in material things, it is the impression he makes in that home.

In reference to this point that has been raised, that much good may come from contact with a friendly visitor in the same, or relatively the same, grade as those whom they are to help, I think we must not let ourselves go too far in that direction. I should be rather sorry to have to think that because a person is educated he does not know how to be on

friendly and sympathetic terms with a person who is uneducated; that because he has had advantages he is not able to go into the home of a poor family and be in close touch with a person who has not had advantages. If that is the case, if people are not able to help because they have money and advantages, they would better be stripped of these things in order that they may learn how to be in close and friendly touch with those less fortunate; but personally I do not believe this. I believe the person with higher opportunities ought to be the one that would know how to come in close relations with the person who has not had these opportunities. As I go back in my personal experiences, I remember when I was in college that my father introduced me into one poor home which I often visited, and I remember that I learned to be friendly with that family and the friendship established then exists to-day. The young men of that family have grown prosperous. I am glad I was introduced into that poor family. I am sure that I received greater benefit than I gave. Every well-to-do person should undertake to be of service in some poor family; he should learn how to get in close contact with that family. The person who has ability or advantages should learn how to use them. However much service may be rendered by persons of the same grade, I do want to emphasize this splendid opportunity to exert a friendly spirit in the homes of the poor by those who are in better circumstances.

Then, again, right along the line that Mr. Frankel has stated, is the opportunity through the children. I do not believe that very much good can come to the family except through the next generation. It is very difficult to reestablish persons who have fallen down after they have become mature. The children are the most important factors in the family. Where there are small children the friendly visitor has limitless opportunity and he should learn how to elevate that family through the children.

REV. THOMAS A. HENDRICK of Rochester.—I cannot say that I have had any experience in social work as a visitor. My experience has been mostly as representative of a society for the prevention of cruelty to children, but I can fully appreciate what

has been said here as to the absolute necessity of doing this work in an effectual way. If the official representative of a society, or a charity worker, can act in the guise of a personal friend, and influence by motives of kindness, good will and helpfulness, if he can conceal his official entity in that garb, he can do a great deal more good. In going into these families to find out the causes of things, there are good lessons for the charity workers, at least there have been to me. We learn of the discouragements of those people that a little talking, a little helpfulness, a little bringing together of the person who wants work and the one who can give work, a little bringing together of the rich and the poor will work marvels. My own experience has been, in such matters, that the rich are as desirous to help the poor as the poor are to be helped — the question is how to bring them together. What results we have accomplished have been altogether in the garb of friendship, of friendly interest. I do not imagine that the enforcement of a law or the effort of any person does very much in itself, unless it be concealed under the garb of personal interest. My own experience is mostly with young wayward boys, and young wayward girls, finding them and talking to them. There is a tide in the affairs of children's emotions, I find, which, taken at the right time, leads on to a better life. If a person can approach them in a sympathetic way, I believe that a child coming for the first time under the influence of the law will always accept the opportunity which the law provides. I do not altogether sympathize with the idea that we ought not to question about religion. I am a Catholic priest, and I believe that we ought to question, as charity workers, the influences that will work for the betterment of the children. For my part if a person comes to secure the release of a child that we have placed in some institution, I want to know first of all what the conditions are at home, what the pastor of that family will say about those people and about their children, whether they are drinking people, what advantages are to be gained by returning the child to the parents. In doing that I want to know if they are Catholics, and if Catholics, whether they attend to their religious duties or not. If they are Hebrews, I want to know

what their rabbi has to say. If they are Protestants of any kind, I want to know if they are connected with any church. To turn these children out without social resources, and without anybody to take a friendly interest in them, means I think, they will have an uphill battle against the conditions from which we took them. I don't believe children ought to be left with this. I wish again to express my very cordial appreciation of what this gentleman said; it is not the official we need, but, instead, the work must be done by those who appear in the garb of friendship and love.

Chairman HYNES.—I will state now that through the kindness of the President of the State Conference of Charities, the time of the Committee on the Care and Relief of Needy Families has been extended beyond the time originally allowed. I take pleasure in turning over the chair to Mr. Stewart.

PRESIDENT STEWART.—The last half of this afternoon is devoted to a discussion of the subject, "The Relief of the Sick Poor." I have pleasure in introducing to the members of the Conference the Chairman of the committee on that subject, Dr. S. A. Knopf, of New York city, who will read the report of that committee, and will preside during the discussion on this subject.

#### REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE RELIEF OF THE SICK POOR.

Dr. S. A. KNOPF.—Before I read my report I desire to state I alone am responsible for it. I had no chance to submit it to the other members of the committee, and consequently it is an expression of my own views, for which I am alone responsible.

My first duty is to thank you all for the honor you conferred upon me last year by my election as Chairman of this important committee. I consider myself particularly fortunate to have occupied this position during the year 1902, for I do not think there has ever been a more eventful year than the present one in the history of the charity work of this great State. Large

sums have been donated to the various charity institutions devoted to the care of the sick poor. New hospitals have been erected and old ones enlarged or improved, but it would be impossible in the short space of time allotted to me for my report to enumerate all that has been done towards improving the condition of the sick poor of this State during the past year.

In order not to speak of New York city alone, I have endeavored to secure direct reports from the respective authorities of the five largest cities of the State. Beginning with the city of Albany, which extends to us its hospitality to-day, I am indebted for the report to Dr. Craig, the Health Officer, who informs me that there has been no change during the past year in the methods of caring for the sick, as far as the Department of Health is concerned; the present method works with entire satisfaction.

The city of Syracuse is divided by its Health Department into four districts, with a physician for each district. Serious cases among the poor, such as cannot be promptly treated at home, are sent to the public hospitals, of which there are four; for this the city expends annually \$15,000.

From the city of Rochester I learned that the Health Department allows \$2,500 a year for the care and maintenance of cases of contagious diseases among the poor. There are seven city physicians attached to the Health Department, who make daily visits to such of the needy sick as are deserving, after the cases have been investigated by the Poor Department. Outside of the contagious disease cases, the Department of Charities provides for the maintenance of the sick poor in hospitals.

Buffalo has ten district physicians for the care of the sick poor. These physicians are paid by the municipality, and medicine is furnished gratis. Where it is necessary to send the patient to the hospital, this is done through the City Poor Master, and, in the majority of cases, at the request or suggestion of one of the district physicians. Every hospital in the city receives such patients and the city pays the bill.

With the exception of the lack of accommodation for the tuberculous poor in the above-named four cities, there seems to be no difficulty in the care of the sick poor whose numbers are relatively small as compared with the great city of New York. The State Hospital for the Consumptive Poor, which we hope will be completed and in running order before this Conference meets again, will, in a measure, meet the necessity of the care of the consumptive poor of the State; of course, inadequately, but it is hoped that if our legislators can once see with their own eyes the great good a State sanatorium can do in the prevention and cure of consumption, they will learn to be more liberal with their appropriation, and facilities for the care of the consumptive poor from all over the State will increase.

The unsatisfactory condition of treatment and care to which the large number of insane and epileptic poor of this State have been subjected in the past has materially improved, particularly during the last year, thanks to the untiring energy of the State Board of Charities, and of Commissioner Peterson and his associates. I sincerely hope that the numerous excellent recommendations set forth by the above Board, and Commissioners Peterson and Parkhurst, and Secretary McGarr, in their recent reports, will be carried out, and that the Legislature will do its duty. Insanity as well as epilepsy, with our present knowledge of its causes and its pathology, must be classified with preventable and curable diseases, and abundant means should be placed at the disposal of the Commissioners to create the best possible facilities for the cure of these unfortunates. By returning to the communities, as breadwinners, healthy in mind and body, as large a number as possible of those formerly insane and epileptic, the commonwealth would be the financial gainer in the end.

Among the recommendations which seem to me of particular importance, contained in the report of the State Commission in Lunacy, are small psychopathic hospitals for all the larger cities of the State. These institutions should serve as reception hospitals for all cases of insanity until their character

and prognosis have been determined. A division of acute and chronic cases is thus facilitated and a hasty diagnosis with its sometimes sad and fatal consequences avoided.

The other recommendation which I most heartily indorse is the separation of the tuberculous insane or tuberculous epileptic from the non-tuberculous mental or nervous sufferer. The urgent reason for such separation must be obvious. All those who have experience with the insane and epileptic know how easily tuberculosis spreads among these unfortunates, particularly when the patients are much confined within walls. There must be special provision for pulmonary cases in all institutions for the insane and epileptic, for only when the tuberculous are separated from the non-tuberculous is it possible to control even in a measure the indiscriminate expectoration and, perhaps, also the drop infection (infection arising from expulsion of small particles of bacilliferous saliva during the so-called dry cough, sneezing, etc.). The therapeutic measures, such as open air treatment, respiratory exercises, over-alimentation, and constant medical supervision, are also possible only when this class of invalids is separated from others. Whether the tuberculous insane or epileptics should live in tents, especially constructed pavilions or cottages, would largely depend upon the climate and topographic condition of the locality where these institutions are situated. As for myself, I would favor the pavilion plan, with large verandas for the rest cure, large enough to accommodate from twenty to twenty-five patients. My personal experience with tuberculous insane or tuberculous epileptics has been limited, and I do not wish to express an expert opinion on the method of the special treatment of such individuals; but my somewhat extensive experience with ordinary consumptives has taught me that the psychical and mental conditions of the pulmonary invalid improve in the same ratio as his tuberculous trouble decreases. One of the first symptoms in the early recognition of pulmonary tuberculosis is an increased nervous irritability; one of the most favorable symptoms of approaching recovery is when the patient becomes himself again, psychically and mentally.

Leaving aside even the great importance of prophylaxis, the very frequent cures of pulmonary tuberculosis and its concomitant improvement of the mental state should be a great inducement to us to try to cure all tuberculous epileptics and insane.

The condition of the poorest among the sick poor of the city of New York, that is to say, the inmates of the almshouse hospital, which has been most deplorable in the past because of insufficient food and care, has been most gratifyingly improved under the energetic, humane and benevolent administration of the present Commissioner of Public Charities, the Hon. Homer Folks. Another magnificent work accomplished by Commissioner Folks, which deserves mention on this occasion, is the establishment of a hospital for consumptives on Blackwell's Island by the utilization of the buildings vacated by the Manhattan State Hospital for the Insane. This hospital was opened on January 31, 1902, and within one week all the consumptive patients from the Bellevue, City and Metropolitan hospitals, which were not treated in wards exclusively for their care, were transferred to this new institution. The number of patients received in this hospital from January 31, 1902, to March 31, 1902, inclusive, was 194. While a large majority of the patients received, were in the advanced stages of the disease, a small number were in a condition which admitted of some hope of improvement. For these patients, separate accommodations, extra diet and special treatment were provided with the result that a majority of the patients of this class showed a substantial gain in weight and a diminution of the active symptoms of phthisis.

I am also happy to announce on this occasion that the Loomis Sanatorium at Liberty, now in charge of Dr. Herbert M. King, has of late established an annex with thirty beds for the treatment of moderately poor consumptives, that is to say, for patients who are able to pay five dollars per week, for which they receive the best board, medical attendance, medicine and even washing.

Before leaving the subject of tuberculosis and the sick poor, I must mention a work of which the New York city members

of this Conference may justly be proud. I refer to the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Charity Organization Society of the city of New York. To those of you who have not yet heard of this committee, and to those in other cities who may wish to inaugurate similar movements, I believe it will be of interest to learn something of the workings of this committee and the results already obtained. The committee is composed of about thirty men and women, and is presided over by Mr. Charles F. Cox, as chairman. Among the lay members are leading sociologists, lawyers, philanthropists and trained charity workers. The Tenement-house Commissioner, the Commissioner of Charities, the Health Commissioner, and the Health Officer of the city of New York are likewise members. Among the medical men ten are distinguished professors of the leading medical schools of New York. Dr. E. L. Trudeau, the pioneer of the sanatorium treatment for consumption in the United States is also counted among the honored members of the committee.

The work which this unique committee has undertaken is as follows:

(1) Research into the social, as distinct from the medical, aspect of tuberculosis. For example, into the relation between the disease and overcrowding, infected tenements and unhealthful occupations, and also the influence, upon recovery, of improved diet and hygienic living.

(2) Education.—The publication of leaflets and pamphlets, the giving of lectures and the promulgation in every possible way of the fact that tuberculosis is a communicable and preventable disease; the widest distribution of the results of scientific research in this field, and of the results of modern treatment both in sanatoria and at home.

(3) The encouragement of movements for suitable public and private sanatoria, both for advanced and incipient cases; for adults and for children; for free care and also for the care of those who can pay moderate fees.

(4) The relief of indigent consumptives by the provision of suitable food and medicines, by the payment of rent when

this is necessary to secure adequate light and air, and by transportation and maintenance at a distance, when, in the judgment of the committee, this is essential.

The labors of the committee are directed not only towards the amelioration of the condition of the large class of consumptives, but also towards the benefit of the community as a whole in which there is encouraging reason to believe that tuberculosis may be practically eradicated. The work of the committee is not intended to be temporary merely, but its continuance and effectiveness will depend upon the public encouragement and support received.

How deeply the work of the committee is appreciated by the public may be readily seen from the response to an appeal for financial aid to carry on the work. An appeal issued by the committee on September 15th, resulted in the receipt of about \$5,000 by October 1st. The continued support which the public is lending to this committee enabled it to engage a permanent secretary, to have paid workers for the gathering of statistics, to arrange for a number of lectures throughout the city in public schools, Young Men's Christian Associations, tenement districts, and so on, and last, but not least, to provide a number of destitute families, where there are consumptive invalids, with better hygienic conditions and means to pay for food and other necessities.

An offer of a site for a sanatorium has already been made to this committee, and it is devoutly to be hoped that funds for the establishment of such an institution will soon be forthcoming. I am also in hope that some great philanthropist will give either to this committee, to the New York City Board of Health or directly to the city, a much needed tuberculosis dispensary where the ambulant consumptive poor, that is to say, those still able to be up and do some work, or those unable to be admitted to the hospital for incipient cases, can receive treatment and hygienic instruction. Such institutions are already quite numerous in France and Germany, and are productive of a great amount of good in the combat of tuberculosis among the poor.

Of equally great need are more hospitals for the advanced cases of consumption, such, for example, as St. Joseph's, the Brooklyn Home, and the one already mentioned on Blackwell's Island, in New York city. While not many cures can be expected in such an institution through the proper isolation of such cases, that is to say, removal of the sick from the crowded tenement districts, centres of infection are destroyed, and the financial burden resulting from the support of an invalid member in a family is removed, which is likewise essential for the preservation of the health of the remaining members of the family.

Being myself an humble member of the Tuberculosis Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, you will pardon my enthusiasm if I say that I consider the work it has undertaken most timely, humane, rational and scientific, and that I prophesy for it a glorious future, providing it receives from our wealthy fellow-citizens in New York, the financial support it so truly deserves. I am convinced that if the same or similar work would be undertaken in other cities of this State and country the "great white plague" would no longer have the terror it still has, and its ultimate eradication would be a great possibility.

To trained charity workers it should be gratifying to know that the creation of this committee has been mainly due to the untiring efforts of Mr. Edward T. Devine, the Secretary of this Conference, and Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of New York city.

Another gratifying change for the better in the care of the sick poor of the city of New York has been effected through the work of our new Health Commissioner, Dr. Lederle, and his associate, Dr. Biggs. The deplorable condition of the Smallpox Hospital no longer exists, and an appropriation of \$500,000 has been granted for the erection of new contagious disease hospitals for smallpox and scarlatina patients. The heartrending sight of a child being taken from its mother without her being able to follow to the hospital and remain in its vicinity will no longer be witnessed.

It remains for me to mention only one other great event in the care of the sick poor, or rather of the convalescent poor, which has transpired during the past year. It is with pleasure and a feeling of profound gratitude that I, as Chairman of the Committee of the Sick Poor, express herewith our deep and heartfelt appreciation of the great gift to our beloved city by the venerable Mr. John M. Burke. It will be known to most of you that on October 2d of this year a deed was filed at Marshall, whereby John M. Burke conveyed to the Winifred Masterson Burke Relief Foundation \$4,000,000 worth of real and personal property to be used as an endowment for a hospital for convalescents. In a recent communication to one of our medical journals, and also to Charities, I have expressed my views on the advisability of creating four homes instead of one, namely, one for surgical convalescents, with a division for obstetrical cases, that is to say, women recovering from confinement; one for convalescents from general medical diseases, such as typhoid fever, pneumonia, etc.; one for nervous cases; and lastly, one for convalescents from pulmonary tuberculosis. The latter, however, should not be a convalescent home in the ordinary sense of the word, but rather a settlement or colony.

Through State and city appropriations, and private philanthropy, there is at present some prospect that we will soon have a number of sanatoria (though by no means enough) for the treatment of incipient, that is to say, early and curable cases among the consumptive poor. Now, the most difficult task in the solution of the tuberculosis problem is to prevent the cured consumptive from a relapse. If he returns to the unsanitary, dreary tenement, begins work again in sweatshops or factories, or, owing to his feeble health, cannot yet earn enough to secure ample and nutritious food, the time and money spent for sanatorium treatment will all have been in vain, for he will surely relapse into the old condition and thus greatly endanger his chances for a lasting recovery. What can be done for him? For the recently recovered consumptive, who is rarely able to take up his former work immediately, we would establish a special farm in a good, healthful locality,

where he could do light outdoor work and remain until he has grown vigorous enough to take up his old vocation or acquire sufficient liking for outdoor work to continue in it. Such an agricultural colony or farm would seem to me the ideal home for the patient recovering from pulmonary tuberculosis. It would not only prove a blessing to thousands of pulmonary invalids, but would constitute a strong factor in the combat of tuberculosis viewed as a disease of the masses. Agricultural colonies for the convalescent consumptive poor seem certainly as essential as special hospitals and sanatoria for the actual treatment of the disease. Such colonies for recovered consumptives have proved in a large measure self-supporting wherever the experiment has been tried.

These four institutions should be in different localities, at some distance from each other, for the aggregation of too large a number of people would prove injurious to any class of convalescent patients. If at all practical, each home should have a division for convalescent children, for there is, with the exception of a small number of homes for children, no institution of this kind in or near our city.

There is but one more suggestion I would venture, and that is in regard to the selection of cases to be admitted to the various homes for convalescents. Not only cases discharged from our public hospitals, but also those from private practice among the poorer classes who pay their physicians whatever they can, should share in the benefits of the Burke foundation.

At the close of this report I wish to ask pardon for not having mentioned the work of other institutions and individuals. There are throughout this State a goodly number of charitable enterprises devoted to the care of the sick poor, of whose noble work in relieving the sick and needy we hear but rarely. Yet their work is systematic, continuous and effective. I desire to express to these workers our deep appreciation. There are also numerous private individuals in cities, towns and hamlets throughout this State and country working quietly, unobtrusively and unknown to others, administering counsel, food and medicine in the homes of the poor and unfortunate. To these co-workers, benefactors and unknown members of our

Committee for the Care of the Sick Poor our gratitude is as great as that to our best-known benefactors. May they and all the others continue, and be blessed in their labors for the glory and good of humankind.

Chairman KNOFF.—Now, it gives me great pleasure to introduce to you a gentleman who has not been heretofore associated with us publicly, but who has done, perhaps, more than any one man I know for the good of the sick poor, and particularly of the consumptive poor, Prof. Hermann M. Biggs, who has for the past five or ten years devoted a great deal of his energy and time to the prevention of tuberculosis. It is to his labors, I am glad, and happy, and proud to announce to you that the mortality from tuberculosis in New York city is less than one-third of what it was, and it is due to his labors that New York city stands to-day as one of the foremost in the prevention of tuberculosis; this is due to the efficiency of the medical officer of the board of health, Dr. Hermann M. Biggs, who will now read a paper to us on "Reportable Diseases."

#### REPORTABLE DISEASES, WITH SOME REMARKS ON THE PROGRESS OF PREVENTIVE MEDICINE.

Dr. Biggs.—I have not been familiar with the character of these conferences, and I beg your indulgence if this paper in part shall seem rather technical.

I desire to present for your consideration some suggestions looking to the extension of certain forms of sanitary work, because as representatives of the various charitable organizations of the State I know that you are interested in all those measures, which have for their object the improvement of the conditions of life among the poor. It is especially among them that sanitary work is most needed and brings the largest returns.

I know that your influence may be of the greatest value in forwarding the work of the health authorities in various parts of the State, and I wish to enlist your aid more fully in their behalf.

One of the most important features of the work of the sanitary authorities, and one of the most neglected, is the educational. It is in the lack of popular knowledge and appreciation of the importance of the work in preventive medicine, that this country has been most backward. The degree of sanitary enlightenment and progress is a good index of the plane of civilization attained by a community or country. I regret to say that in this respect we are far behind Great Britain and Germany, although in the application of some of the most recent discoveries of modern medicine we lead them.

It may be of service to recount some of the achievements of the past ten or fifteen years in preventive medicine, and the means by which they have been attained, to emphasize the importance and the possibilities of the extensions suggested, and for this purpose I would refer to the work of the Department of Health of New York city. If my account seems somewhat personal, I can only urge in extenuation that it has been my great privilege to be in active direction of the scientific work of the Department of Health of the city of New York for many years, and to have had therefore a leading part in devising and putting into effect most of the progressive measures which have during these years brought forth unexpectedly successful results.

It may be well, perhaps, to give somewhat in detail the history and development of the work in the prevention of tuberculosis. The infectious character of tuberculosis had not been satisfactorily established, until the publication of the observations of Koch in 1882 showed conclusively the causal relations of the tubercle bacillus to this disease. Tuberculosis was then generally regarded by the medical profession and the laity as being largely an inherited disease, and it was not considered to be communicable. A long period elapsed after the announcement of Koch before the sanitary authorities or the medical profession began to realize the vast significance of Koch's observations upon the prevention of this disease. All the pioneer work of the Department of Health of New York city looking to the sanitary surveillance of tuberculosis was met by bitter opposition from a large portion of the medical profession and the

medical press, and to a certain extent even from the lay press. It was more than ten years after the beginning of this work before the mass of the profession had become sufficiently educated to sympathize in part with the measures adopted.

In 1887 the advisability of some action in regard to the prevention of this disease was first brought to the attention of the board of health of New York city by the writer, and a little later the first definite efforts were made in the formulation of educational measures. In 1893 a scheme for the partly compulsory, partly voluntary, notification of tuberculosis was adopted, including methods for the visitation and instruction of consumptives, the inspection and renovation of apartments occupied by them, and the free examination of sputum for the diagnosis of this disease. In 1897 the notification of cases was made compulsory, and the other measures have since been extended, elaborated and perfected. These include the ordinance relating to spitting.

The action of the authorities in New York city in regard to tuberculosis has been imitated, or its procedures adopted, almost without modification, in many of the largest cities of this country and Great Britain. Last year there were 17,588 cases of pulmonary tuberculosis reported to the Department of Health in Greater New York, of which 4,191 were duplicates, the others being new cases. This indicates somewhat the extent of this work.

In view of the popular measures now being adopted throughout the civilized world, it is difficult for any one who has not been familiar with the history of this movement from its inception to realize how bitter was the opposition, which the Department of Health met in all its earlier work in this matter. I firmly believe that the educational influence of this work has been one of the most potent factors in bringing about the popular enlightenment which now exists. Only about four years ago every prominent medical society in New York city adopted resolutions condemning the action and attitude of the Department of Health toward this disease, and protesting against the enforcement of the measures which had been adopted. Determined efforts were then made by the New York County Medical

Society to obtain legislation making it impossible for the Department of Health to exercise any sanitary surveillance over this disease. How striking has been the change of popular and professional sentiment since that time you all very well know. Within these years there have been organized popular societies for the prevention of tuberculosis, for the establishment of sanatoriums and dispensaries, and for extending other measures of relief to the consumptive poor throughout the world. Hardly an intelligent person who would openly protest against the attitude of the sanitary authorities in this matter can now be found.

The practical results in New York city include an extraordinary reduction in the death rate, yet I question whether even this, which means the saving in Greater New York of probably not less than 20,000 lives, is equal in its importance to the educational influence, which this work had upon the sanitary authorities, the medical profession and the people.

In the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, where the measures were earliest put into operation, there has been in fifteen years a reduction of forty per cent. in the death rate from tuberculosis, meaning, if applied to the Greater city, an annual reduction of more than 6,000 in the number of deaths caused by this disease.

I have not the time nor is this the proper place to take up in detail other measures which have been instituted in New York during these years, and I shall only briefly refer to them here, with the comment that they have been the result of long, painstaking observation and research, and the results finally obtained have been reached after overcoming many obstacles.

In 1892 the first municipal bacteriological laboratories in the world were established in New York city under my direction. They were designed to offer facilities for the diagnosis and study of the infectious diseases. The facilities for diagnosis were placed gratuitously at the command of all practicing physicians in New York city. In these laboratories were first worked out the methods now universally employed in the bacteriological diagnosis of diphtheria; here, too, were first instituted public measures for the free examination of the expect-

toration for the diagnosis of pulmonary tuberculosis; from them emanated the first reliable diphtheria antitoxin produced in this country, which was freely offered for use among the poor, while at the same time plans were made for its free administration, on request of the attending physicians, by inspectors of the Department of Health. The use of this remedy and the other measures adopted for the sanitary surveillance of this disease, have not only checked the gradual increase in its prevalence and in the death rate caused by it, but have decreased it by fully sixty per cent., resulting in an annual saving of not less than 2,500 lives in Greater New York.

The improvement in the milk supplies, the establishment of bacteriological milk standards, the inspections of dairies and means of transportation of milk, the formulation of a system of disinfection and the provision of disinfecting plants, the system of medical inspection of schools, the improvement in the sanitary surveillance of the infectious diseases and the provision of enlarged and improved facilities for their hospital care, the establishment of the research bacteriological laboratories, and the very important scientific work done there, the scientific investigation of the production of vaccine virus, the perfecting of the virus, the extension of its use and the building of a vaccine laboratory and a special laboratory for the study of the Bubonic plague, each at a cost of more than \$30,000, represent some of the measures which have characterized the work of the health department of New York city during these recent years. The results have been most striking. New York has been converted from a city possessing the unenviable reputation of having an excessively high death rate, and being one of the most unhealthful of the large cities of the world, to one with a relatively low death rate and one whose progressive sanitary methods are everywhere regarded by sanitary authorities as worthy of imitation or adoption.

The death rate of children under five has always been regarded an excellent index of existing sanitary conditions. Formerly in New York the annual death rate at these ages was between 115 and 125 per thousand of the population, i. e., 600 out of every 1,000 children born, died before the end of their

fifth year; now the death rate, still much too high, is about 60—a reduction of 50 per cent. The average general death rate at all ages was formerly 26 to 31 per thousand of the population; now it is 19 to 20. This means an annual reduction of between 20,000 and 30,000 in the number of deaths in Greater New York and an average increase in the duration of human life of more than eight years.

These facts emphasize the enormous practical value of such work to the individual citizen, but as I have already said, the value cannot be measured alone by the results in New York city, for its educational influence has not been limited even by the confines of this vast country. It is in this, the educational phase of the work, that the influence of such organizations as yours is most effective, in promoting sanitary progress. It is within your province and within your power to render most valuable assistance in placing properly before the people and the authorities of the various communities throughout the State, the importance to the public of an administration of sanitary affairs in harmony with the development of modern scientific medicine, and the necessity for liberal expenditures for the attainment of this end. I believe in no other way can you render such effective aid in improving the conditions of the poor.

It has been the custom of sanitary authorities since the earliest development of sanitary science to require the notification of what were formerly called zymotic diseases. These included for the most part diseases which often prevailed in epidemic form and were considered highly contagious, such as small pox, typhus fever, scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, plague, yellow fever and Asiatic cholera. In many countries, but not universally, especially in recent years, some other diseases have been added to this list, such as typhoid fever, chicken-pox, whooping cough, etc. The health board of New York city has always been progressive in this matter, and within the last two years has considerably increased the number of reportable diseases, so that now the list includes typhus fever, yellow fever, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, plague, cholera, measles, diphtheria, smallpox, chicken-pox, whooping cough, tuberculosis,

malarial fever and contagious ophthalmia. In the case of malarial fever, notification is required only in those cases which come under the observation of institutions; private physicians being requested, but not required, to report their cases.

It will of course be noted in this connection that the diseases included in the notifiable group differ from each other very much in character, and the considerations which require their notification must be in the different diseases of a quite different nature. Malarial fever, for example, in this latitude cannot be considered at all as a serious menace to the public health in the sense that typhus fever or smallpox may be.

Because of the earlier attitude of sanitary authorities requiring the notification only of those diseases which were regarded as highly contagious, the feeling has become very firmly established in the minds of the medical profession and the laity, that sanitary authorities should have to do only with those diseases which are readily transmitted from person to person, and that in these diseases the sanitary authorities should assume a continuous surveillance of the cases, and as far as possible, especially in the tenement house districts, require the removal of cases to hospitals under their jurisdiction.

It seems to me that this is an imperfect and erroneous conception, and that the time has arrived when an important and radical change in the attitude of the authorities in regard to the notifiable diseases should be made. I believe the list of such diseases should be greatly increased, and their classification and grouping considerably altered. It seems to me, further, that a determined effort should be made to bring about a very different feeling, so far as the profession and the people are concerned, as to the functions of the sanitary authorities in these matters. In my opinion all the more important diseases which are infectious, and therefore to a greater or less extent preventable, should be included in the class of reportable diseases. Under the term infectious I would include all those which are caused by the simplest forms of life, and I would rearrange somewhat their classification. It should be said, however, that the classification here presented is a tentative practical one, constructed to meet the sanitary requirements according to

our present knowledge of these diseases. It will undoubtedly require modification and alteration as our accurate knowledge is increased.

Proposed sections of the sanitary code of the Board of Health of New York City :

### INFECTIOUS DISEASES.

Section —. It shall be the duty of every physician to report to the Department of Health, in writing, the full name, age and address of every person suffering from any one of the infectious diseases included in the list appended, with the name of the disease, within twenty-four hours of the time when the case is first seen:

A. *Contagious* (very readily communicable) : Measles, rubella (rotheln), scarlet fever, small-pox, varicella, typhus fever, relapsing fever.

B. *Communicable*: Diphtheria, typhoid fever, Asiatic cholera, tuberculosis (of all organs), plague, tetanus, anthrax, glanders, epidemic cerebro-spinal meningitis, leprosy, infectious diseases of the eye (trachoma, suppurative conjunctivitis), puerperal septicaemia, erysipelas, whooping cough.

C. *Indirectly communicable* (through intermediary host) : Yellow fever, malarial fever.

NOTE.— In this provisional classification of the infectious diseases, arranged for practical purposes, the most readily communicable of these diseases, embracing the exanthemata and typhus fever, have been placed in a group by themselves and called contagious. This has been done with a view to emphasizing a distinction, which is not only of scientific significance, but of practical importance, in dealing with the sanitary features of administration. This distinction is furthermore of importance because it avoids the misunderstanding and alarm frequently caused by including in the same class the very readily communicable diseases (such as small-pox), and the much less readily communicable diseases (such as tuberculosis), which require very different sanitary measures for their control.

§ . It shall be the duty of the commissioners or managers or the principal, superintendent, or physician, of each and every public institution or dispensary, in this city, to report to the Department of Health, in writing, the full name, age and address of any person suffering from any one of the infectious diseases included in the list appended, with the name of the disease, within twenty-four hours of the time when the case is first seen:

A. *Communicable*: Influenza, lobar pneumonia, broncho-pneumonia, infectious diseases of the gastro-intestinal canal (dysentery, cholera morbus, cholera infantum, summer diarrhoeas of infants).

- B. *Parasitic Diseases of the Skin*: Scabies, tinea tonsurans, impetigo (contagious), favus.

NOTE.— In this list of diseases reporting is required by the Department of Health in order that data may be obtained for general and special investigation of the modes and sources of infection and as to the prevalence and distribution of these diseases. The Department of Health does not purpose to exercise a sanitary surveillance in these cases, but desires information with a view to the ultimate removal or improvement in the conditions which now foster them. Notification is required in certain of these diseases because of the liability to their extension among the children in schools.

In this list it will be noted that a large number of diseases have been added, many of which would at first thought perhaps be regarded as not properly coming under the supervision of sanitary authorities; but it should be considered in this connection, in the first place, what the duties and functions of the sanitary authorities are in relation to the public. In the broad sense, aside from the educational features of their work their duties include everything which has to do with the protection of the public health, the study and investigation of the causes, the sources of infection, and the geographical distribution of diseases; the condition favoring the development and dissemination of disease, including statistical studies and the formulation of measures designed for their prevention — in other words the protection of the public from infectious diseases in every way and by every means.

Let us consider for example, malarial fever and the reasons for requiring notification of it. We know now that this disease is transmitted from person to person through the action of an intermediary host — the mosquito — and that its prevalence is dependent upon two factors, first, the existence of cases of the disease which serve to supply infection to mosquitoes, and second, local unsanitary or unhygienic conditions which provide suitable breeding places for certain varieties of mosquitoes. The removal of either of these factors will effectually prevent the prevalence of this disease.

It is necessary in order that sanitary authorities may be able to remove either of these factors that they should have full knowledge of the occurrence and location of cases of malarial fever. The sources of infection must be determined in order that suitable measures may be taken to remove the unsanitary local conditions which have made possible their development. It is not necessary or desirable that the individual cases of malarial fever shall be brought specifically under the surveillance of the Department of Health, but it is necessary that the Department of Health should know of their existence in order that the causes which have led to their development may be removed. It was with this conception in view that the board of health of New York city about one year ago adopted resolutions including malarial fever among those diseases, which are notifiable.

Let us take now for consideration another group — puerperal fever and septicaemia. It has been pretty satisfactorily shown by the results of modern aseptic obstetrical work, that puerperal fever may be almost entirely prevented by the adoption of proper measures during child birth, and that the existence of this disease is generally due to incompetence, ignorance, or carelessness; further, that a large number of the cases occurring in large cities particularly are due to lack of education, care and cleanliness of the midwives. In order that the responsibility for the unnecessary cases may be accurately determined, the number of such cases ascertained, and the character of the measures to be adopted for their prevention decided upon, it is necessary that the sanitary authorities shall have accurate information, which can be obtained only through notification. As further bearing upon the importance of notification of such cases is the information which would come as the result, as to the practice of the professional abortionist.

Let us take for consideration again another type of disease — pneumonia. Pneumonia is recognized as an infectious disease; the possibilities in the way of prevention are not well understood. This disease in its various forms has been steadily increasing as a cause of death in many large cities, and especially

in New York, until at the present time pneumonia in the broad sense, including all the various forms of acute respiratory disease producing consolidation, stands first as a cause of death. The sanitary authorities have no information and there are no means by which information can be obtained at present, excepting through the death returns, of the extent to which this disease prevails, or as to its distribution. It is practically impossible to make any broad or accurate study of its endemology under the present conditions. It becomes, therefore, important that the sanitary authorities should have information in regard to cases of pneumonia, in order that investigations may be instituted on a broad scale to determine, if possible, what the factors are which are influential in its causation and prevalence. It is of course apparent at once that information in regard to individual cases is not designed in any way to result in the surveillance of such cases, excepting in so far as may be concerned with local sanitary conditions, especially of the habitations.

A very large new field has just been opened by recent observations with regard to the specific infectious character of many of the summer diarrhoeas, both of infants and adults. The results of the investigations and work of the Department of Health in New York in recent years have shown in the most conclusive way that the summer diarrhoeas are to a very large extent preventable, and it would seem probable from recent investigations that some forms at least are even more readily and certainly preventable than previous observations had indicated. The death rate in the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx in the last fifteen years, from diarrhoeal diseases of children under five years, have been reduced almost exactly fifty per cent. The rate has been persistently higher in the Borough of Brooklyn, notwithstanding the fact that overcrowding does not exist to such an extent as in Manhattan, and all the sanitary conditions should be far better and far more favorable. Certain local habits or conditions are responsible for this excess.

Investigations have shown that serious outbreaks of diarrhoea and dysentery have occurred in various institutions, and in local areas throughout the city, which were probably, if not

certainly, preventable, but concerning these the sanitary authorities have had no information. It seems evident, therefore, that these diseases should be made notifiable. A practical difficulty in connection with them, exists in the lack of definiteness as to what cases should be included and how the differentiation is to be made between the diarrhoeas due to simple digestive disturbances and those of a more serious nature, caused by infection. This, however, is a matter for further investigation.

A serious objection which may be urged against the adoption of the measures here recommended is the increased labor thrown on physicians, which their enforcement would involve. The question may properly be asked whether the sanitary authorities in the interests of the general public may justly call upon the medical profession for the expenditure of so much time and labor without offering any compensation in return. There are thirty-five diseases included in this list. The English authorities pay a fee for the notification of each case of infectious disease, and I believe that this course might properly be pursued in this country; but it has not been the custom in this country to do this, and the sanitary authorities are not provided with the funds necessary for this purpose.

When the Department of Health of New York city established its bacteriological laboratories in 1892, measures were adopted to make some return to physicians for their interest and labor in connection with the sanitary surveillance of the infectious diseases. A systematic plan was then inaugurated and has since been consistently followed, to secure their coöperation by offering free bacteriological examinations in the diagnosis of various forms of infectious diseases. This was first applied to Asiatic cholera in 1892, during the outbreak in New York harbor, and it was really for this purpose that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of New York City first made the necessary appropriation for the establishment of the bacteriological laboratories. The method was very soon extended to the diagnosis of diphtheria and tuberculosis, and a little later to typhoid fever and malarial fever, and still more recently to dysentery.

The establishment of this system of free bacteriological examinations in the diagnosis and surveillance of the infectious diseases, and the provision of facilities throughout the city for the collection of specimens and the sending of reports to physicians constituted an entirely new departure in sanitary work and has been of inestimable value. The example of the New York City Health Department in this matter has been followed by the sanitary authorities in most of the large cities of this country, by many of the State authorities, and by authorities generally in Great Britain and to a certain extent on the Continent. These examinations have constituted the return which the sanitary authorities here have made to physicians for the reporting of cases, and for their assistance and coöperation in their care. This return has a very considerable money value when we remember that for such examinations the usual fee is five dollars, and as physicians cannot make such examinations themselves, they must work without the assistance thus afforded, unless they appeal to the regularly constituted laboratories.

It should be said, however, that there is no class of men who render gratuitously and willingly such valuable services to the public as the medical profession. Nowhere is greater altruism exhibited than among them. Physicians in all times have devoted their time and energies most unselfishly, most zealously and most successfully to the discovery and development of methods for the restriction and eradication of disease and the alleviation of suffering. And so I believe in this matter, if the medical profession are convinced of the propriety and value of the additional services which they are called upon to offer they will be most cheerfully rendered.

Chairman KNOPF.—I am sure the Conference is to be congratulated upon having Dr. Biggs here this afternoon, for he has given us most interesting facts which we can take to heart and use wherever we can combat contagious diseases.

I now introduce Dr. Craig, of Albany, who will open the discussion.

## DISCUSSION ON REPORTABLE DISEASES.

The discussion was opened by Dr. J. D. Craig, Health Officer, Albany.

Dr. CRAIG.—Mr. Chairman, I want to express my sense of obligation in being permitted to open the discussion upon this, to me, a most interesting feature of modern scientific medicine. I am sure we have all listened with interest and approval to the paper of Dr. Biggs. I know no man in the State of New York who is more competent from personal knowledge and experience to speak on such a subject than the distinguished doctor from the city of New York.

I hope the doctor will not think I am trying to recapitulate his paper in any remarks I may make in opening the discussion, but in some degree our thoughts have run along the same lines, and I find I am placed in the position of simply emphasizing and indorsing some things which he has already stated.

I take it for granted that the limitations of the discussion are partly along the line of the charitable institutions of this State, and the consideration of the necessary reportable diseases which are particularly active in the State of New York. Such limitation would leave a very few diseases perhaps which I have not on my list here which would pertain particularly to New York city, but not outside of that. I have had in mind in this classification of my own those diseases with which we deal as practical men in New York State. I also take it for granted that these reportable diseases are to be reported to the local departments of health. They could under certain circumstances be made through the department of the State Board of Charities. It is along the line of local health organizations that we must look for any improvement in the sanitary condition of the people. Now, as Dr. Biggs has suggested in his paper, local boards of health are of comparatively recent date. Before the year 1886 there was not any very serious attempt at an organization of local authorities which would deal with preventable diseases, and there is no more reason to suppose that health authorities should not advance than there is that any other department of activity should not advance. Because cer-

tain diseases have been reported to local departments of health in times gone by, it does not follow that these diseases should be reported now and none others, but the list should be extended, and as we learn more in the future the list should be still further extended.

Now I think Dr. Biggs has expressed the same idea I had in my own mind in giving to departments of health a much larger sphere of usefulness than has ever been given to them. The sources of contagious diseases must be managed by local departments of health. The action of the health boards must be radical and must look to wiping out the diseases which are reportable, as in times gone by. But in my mind the local departments have a larger sphere of usefulness than that. There are many diseases which it is desirable to report as a matter of record, and only perhaps at times to take action thereon. Now, it would interest me very much to know the number of cases of diarrhoeal disease in children during the summer months in this city, because, having this disease as a basis, it would be almost certain, under the system of investigation we have now in force in Albany, that we should be able to ascertain the cause of the increase in the death rate from this disease. It is very gratifying to hear the statistics from the city of New York. I believe it is recognized in New York State that the nearer we approach the sea the greater, proportionally, is the death rate. The death rate in the Hudson Valley is larger than the death rate in the western part of the State. I am happy to be able to report a marked decrease also in the death rate in this city during the last three years, which is largely due to the diminished number of deaths from contagious diseases. Three or four years ago the death rate in this city was something over twenty, between twenty and twenty-one. This year the death rate in the city is a little under sixteen, which I think is a rather remarkable showing. I think I could present some statistics which might be of interest to those here present scientifically inclined, showing that this diminution has been in a great measure due to a falling off of contagious diseases, particularly typhoid and diphtheria. Now, in regard to summer diarrhoea in children there has also been a marked diminution.

I am not able to give, this afternoon, the statistics of the percentage of diminution of diarrhoeal diseases in this city, but it is most remarkable, and I think Dr. Biggs may believe that outside of the city of New York there are some of us who are also trying to do our duty along sanitarian lines. I agree heartily with Dr. Biggs that too much is put upon the individual physician, and that more should be put upon the local authorities and more should be done by them. We are fortunately situated in Albany, in that we have a bacteriological laboratory in the city which is doing extremely good work in offering the profession a diagnosis of diphtheria, typhoid fever and tuberculosis. This is done free of charge, that is, so far as the physician is concerned, the city assuming the expense of the necessary tests. I think if the physician, the particular physician in connection with the charitable institution reports a disease through some lines that may be agreed upon, to the local authorities, he has fulfilled his duty and the local authorities ought to do the rest. We ought to have a system of inspection in schools and in charitable institutions as well as among private patients, and the local authorities should have the power and the information to enable them to act intelligently in stamping out the disease.

Now, I have made a list of some diseases which is rather to be taken as an indication of a longer list, as I do not consider this one in any sense complete. I had in mind the reporting of diseases from the charitable institutions of the State, and along that line I would add to Dr. Biggs' list those diseases which express some change or variation, in quality or quantity, in the food which is supplied to the children, and of course we would naturally have scurvy as a type of diseases of that kind. Perhaps we should add glandular diseases.

Then there is a type Dr. Biggs spoke about in particular, which we have sometimes classified as specific disease. I think it is unfortunate that the profession, so far as the public is concerned, still use the terms contagious and infectious and communicable. I think it is unfortunate that we can not agree upon some one term which we will use as far as the public is concerned. The public lack the technical information and

technical education which would permit it to make an intelligent discrimination between the terms. If we could agree upon some one term so far as the public is concerned to include all these diseases which are caused either by vegetable parasites or bacteria, it would be very beneficial. In the specific diseases I would include venereal diseases. This is not an occasion for a discussion of this matter, but I think it is felt by every scientific man that it is desirable to include them. Then those diseases which are parasitical skin diseases, such as scabies, and those which are due to vegetable growths, such as tinea and favus. Then diseases such as typhoid fever, small-pox, scarlet fever and measles. I would add to the list also mumps and whooping cough. We have succeeded in sensibly diminishing, if not in stopping, an epidemic of mumps through some information that came to us from one of the physicians of Albany who is interested in subjects of this kind. I think Dr. Biggs neglected to include cerebro-spinal meningitis. Certainly pneumonia should be reportable. That is something we want to know about. Then of course we should include diphtheria, and it is a question in my mind whether tonsillitis should not be included. I think the doctor did not include in his list erysipelas—I don't know whether the doctor included that in his classification or not. Then rheumatism and septicaemia, dysentery and diarrhoeal diseases; I think I have already mentioned diarrhoeal diseases in children. Infected milk supply and bad water and a number of things in the summer time may cause this disease, and it is astonishing how the death rate will diminish if we can destroy the cause of the disease. To illustrate along another line—we have in the last two years stamped out typhoid fever when introduced in Albany by collecting certain evidence which resulted in locating the cause of the typhoid. There can be no question that malarial fevers should be included. I have left for the last, purposely, the question of tuberculosis. I want to emphasize everything that Dr. Biggs has said in regard to this disease. I am certain we should fight this vigorously. There were 226 deaths from consumption in Albany last year. From 15 to 20 per cent. of the deaths have been due to that disease, and I know of no reason why

the profession should not report all cases of tuberculosis, particularly those that are expectorating, as a basis for some very radical action. There is no reason why a tuberculosis patient should be permitted to spread the disease. The action must be intelligent of course, but there is no reason why a consumptive should be allowed to be a menace to public health.

Dr. O'LEARY.—I have listened with a great deal of interest, and I think we have all been instructed by listening to the paper read by Dr. Biggs a moment ago. I will take only a very few minutes of your time to try to show the practical application of what has been read, to the sick poor.

In the years gone by, with the few number of reportable diseases, the good derived from reporting them was felt among the poor especially. Now, with a number of diseases to be reported, those diseases which have been called reportable diseases will also affect more directly the sick poor than anybody else. As men engaged in practical works of charity, it seems to me that our first duty is to find out and combat those elements we find most fearful in the production of poverty, and the most prominent of those is ignorance, ignorance of the laws of health, and also ignorance of those who wish to help the poor. Now it becomes the duty of those who visit the poor, either the friendly visitor or the paid agent, to instruct the poor people, the sick poor especially, that the visits from the constituted health authorities are not burdensome, should not be burdensome, that the visitors are sent there for the purpose of looking after them and not to make it a hardship. They should teach the sick poor to understand that seconding the efforts of the health authorities becomes not only a duty, but it should be instilled into them that by their ignorance some mothers, in fact many mothers, are depriving their children of many of the few chances they have of living. Take, for instance, some of the diseases which have been mentioned this afternoon. Many poor mothers think measles is not a disease worth reporting, that it is not worth while to have a doctor; it is considered harmless, yet in 1901, in the city of New York over 1,100 children died of acute respiratory diseases, which no doubt were

the result of the epidemic of measles, puerperal septicaemia, etc., 1,100 more children under five years of age died of acute respiratory diseases than the previous year. This shows the result of the neglect of an epidemic of measles, a neglect not by the health authorities but by the mothers. We can do nothing.

Now, on the subject of pulmonary tuberculosis you have heard a great deal. As I understand, the health authorities of New York city make that a compulsory reportable disease so that they can help the poor by preventing the spread of the disease among them. Now in the crowded districts in New York city, where death occurs in a family in a crowded tenement house the first thing they do after the funeral is over is to move away from that house for the reason that there are sad associations connected with it, but they leave behind a disease-infected apartment which claims as a victim the next occupant, and they frequently carry with them a trail of contagion. Now, under the compulsory reporting of tuberculosis, the health authorities go there and fumigate and disinfect this place, and see that all danger is removed before the next family moves in. All these facts are due in a great measure to the efforts of Dr. Biggs. Five or six years ago tuberculosis was made a reportable disease. It was objected to by various physicians in New York city that it was not right to report tuberculosis for the reason that it would hurt the feelings of the patient and his relatives. Now, of course, in all of these movements for the general good of the public it is true that it will hurt the sympathies and feelings of some, just as the rescuer who by a blow stuns the drowning victim certainly hurts his feelings but saves his life. Diarrhoea does much to rid the city of New York annually of thousands. Great efforts were made by the Board of Health to find the cause. They looked into the milk supply and looked after the methods of feeding and how the milk was kept in the family. It was found that no matter where the milk came from or had been kept that death continued, even though the weather was not abnormally hot. It was discovered that a germ caused the disease, and that it should be made reportable to save the lives of thousands of innocent chil-

dren and not make their condition one in which only the fittest survive.

The next paper, on the subject of "Why the Open Air Treatment of Consumption Succeeds," was presented by M. A. Veeder, M. D.

### WHY THE OPEN AIR TREATMENT OF CONSUMPTION SUCCEEDS.

The one resource in consumption that appears really efficient is life in the open air. This was recognized to some extent, at least, even before bacteriology had become a science. But now that we have so much better knowledge as to the causation of consumption, there should be corresponding improvement in our understanding of the mode of its cure. Even when employed without precise knowledge, the efficiency of the open air treatment is so clearly apparent that we may hope for greatly improved results from instituting careful inquiry as to just why it succeeds.

It may be thought that air in large quantities and in rapid motion, dries and blows away the bacilli, but although this may have considerable effect on the expectorations, it cannot benefit the tissues inside the body. Nor is it the purity of the air that destroys the infection. The bacillus of tuberculosis will continue to grow in proper culture media even when continuously exposed to air that is absolutely sterile. Nor is it the plentiful supply of oxygen that benefits the consumptive, the bacillus being of the facultative anaerobic variety, which grows equally well in the presence or absence of oxygen. If there is any gaseous ingredient of the atmosphere that is specially likely to destroy the bacillus it is not the oxygen, but the carbonic acid gas, which is most abundant, not out of doors, but in badly ventilated rooms. Practically, however, the effect of this gas is unimportant in this regard, it being present in too small quantity. In like manner traces of ozone, or of balsamic vapors, or of the saltiness of sea air, have little real effect, except to appeal to the popular imagination, as exploited in the prospectuses of health resorts. Nor is it the sunshine

encountered in the open air that destroys the bacillus in the interior of the body. The direct rays of the sun do undoubtedly destroy the bacilli in the expectorations, thus abating somewhat the consequences of the spitting nuisance. Nevertheless the inhabitants of the polar regions, where there is no sunlight for months together, are absolutely free from the disease, while in the tropics, where there is the strongest possible sunlight every day in the year, it is very fatal, so that sunlight cannot be an indispensable factor in determining the efficiency of the open air treatment.

It is true that the air of badly ventilated rooms is laden with ptomaines derived from the breath, and that much of the depressing effect of indoor living is due to this cause. Avoidance of these ptomaine poisons by good ventilation and outdoor living is no doubt beneficial, but it is not adequate to explain why the open air treatment of consumption absolutely destroys the bacillus of the disease. On the contrary, the ptomaines originated in the breath of a consumptive would be most apt to be detrimental to the activity of the bacillus, on the principle of the antitoxine treatment, bacilli very commonly being destroyed by the products of their own activity. If this be the fact in consumption, it would be life in an atmosphere laden with these organic poisons, and not in the open air, that would do the most good.

In short, canvass the subject as we may, there is only one attribute of air that need concern us in the present connection, and that is its temperature. Either heat or cold may be carried to such a degree as to destroy not only all forms of activity, but life itself. At the very outset of the studies which originated the science of bacteriology, Pasteur hit upon the idea of employing cold to prevent fermentation. Very early in his investigations, also, he discovered a curiously abrupt limitation of temperature effect in the case of the bacillus of anthrax. This organism does not propagate at a temperature above 100 degrees, so that birds, whose normal temperature is 105 degrees, are not susceptible to its attacks unless made to stand in cold water long enough to lower their temperature to the proper degree, whereupon it becomes fatal in their case as it is in animals whose normal temperature is 100 degrees or less.

This sharpness of limitation of temperature effects is especially well defined in the case of the bacillus of tuberculosis, its ability to thrive and form colonies beginning almost precisely at the temperature of the human body, and extending, with some increase, a few degrees above that point. Hence feverishness of any sort, even when attended by a rise of temperature of but a degree or two, may light up tubercular infection previously dormant, and an ordinary cold, or rather slight ailment, may seem to become the starting point of consumption. Hence, also cattle and birds, whose normal temperature is somewhat above that of man, are very susceptible to tubercular disease, and horses, whose temperature is below that of man, are immune. That there should be such limitation of effect as this is not more remarkable than that the temperature of the body should be practically a constant quantity, the slightest departure from which marks the beginning of ill health.

That a variation of two or three degrees of temperature should make such an enormous difference in the ability of bacilli to grow and produce their toxins, is a fact of the utmost importance in connection with the control of fever processes in general. The direct application of cold to the body, as it has been used successfully in typhoid fever, pneumonia and rheumatism with high temperature, is attended by instant effects that appear to indicate that the bacilli, if not killed outright, are at least made unable to originate their toxins as freely as before. There is also relief from abnormal strain secured to the heat controlling nerve centers of the body. But it is the activity of bacteria engaged in the origination of toxins that keeps up the temperature disturbance, and this activity being checked by the application of cold, heat regulation in the body at once takes care of itself. Even in sunstroke, in which high temperature is supposed to kill by the direct effect of the heat on the nerve centers, it is very likely that death really occurs from toxins, originated abundantly by bacteria that would be harmless at a lower temperature, but which at a high temperature are able to overwhelm the body by the products of their

activity. In other words, the symptoms in sunstroke are those of exceedingly virulent bacterial poisoning, for which, very curiously, there is no remedy better than the application of cold. This explains why every one exposed to extreme heat does not die. It is only those who are the subjects of particular species of bacterial infection that succumb, and what ordinarily would result in a slight illness becomes fatal. So, too, there are cases in which heat hinders the activity of bacilli of particular kinds, as for example when we use a poultice to control certain species of inflammation.

In like manner the natural resources of the body concerned in heat control are brought more actively into operation by the administration of certain drugs, perspiration produced in this way, for example, having the same effect as the outward application of cold. Thus it becomes pre-eminently desirable that the whole subject of the use of drugs and other measures for reducing fever should be restudied from this point of view. The determination of the critical temperature points in the growth of the bacilli in various diseases, and comparison of such critical temperatures with those that appear in the body in the course of the diseases in question, may give much better insight into the mode of operation of methods of treatment, with corresponding improvement in their use. In this as in all other cases true science consists in determining accurately the nature of the forces in operation and studying their limitations.

In the case of tuberculosis, habitual outdoor living, including sleeping in a cold room at night, has the effect of large temperature variation so far as the lungs are concerned, and of small temperature variation so far as the rest of the body is concerned. So we have two classes of cases, in one of which the bacillus may be subjected to very great lowering of temperature in the lungs, and in the other to relatively very much smaller temperature changes elsewhere in the body. It is corroborative of the position taken in this discussion that the greatest benefit from the open air treatment occurs when the disease is located in the lungs, and the least when it is confined to the bones or other deep-seated tissues, it being more directly accessible to the effect of cold in the former case.

That it is possible to lower the temperature of the lungs to a considerable degree by the inhalation of air such as is met with in ordinary outdoor living, may be shown positively by comparing the temperature of the air exhaled with that inhaled. The air that has passed through the lungs at the ordinary temperature of a living room reaches very nearly the temperature of the body, but outdoors the air exhaled may fall short of this as much as twenty or thirty degrees, constituting a decidedly large temperature variation from the point at which the bacillus of tuberculosis thrives and is able to produce its toxins. If the bacillus is anywhere in contact with air so cold as this its growth, and other forms of activity, must be greatly retarded, and there is very good evidence that this is the fact in the lungs. It is probable that the bacillus is located very superficially in the mucous lining of the air passages for weeks or months after infection, acting like foreign matter, such as inert dust particles in this location, until growth begins and the tissues are invaded, superficially at the outset, but more deeply later. If at this stage the individual infected houses himself up in a warm room constantly, the infection gains a firmer foothold, and the chances of recovery diminish. But on the other hand, if there is outdoor living, even of the most primitive character, there is not only improvement but entire recovery in a considerable proportion of cases. The colored people of the South, in their cabins and shanties before the war, were free from the disease, as they are not at present, when living under much better surroundings in the cities. It is Arctic cold, and not cod liver oil, that gives the Esquimaux his immunity. Life on a farm, or in a lumber camp, or at a health resort in the woods, or on a sea voyage, or riding about the country, all requiring much time to be spent outdoors, have been found curative. Even in the tropics the nights may be sufficiently cool, and there may be days and parts of days, cool enough to prove effectual on the principle that has been stated. It is evident, however, that very much more care and skill will be required than in colder climates.

Furthermore, habitual inhalation of fresh, cool air has a tonic and bracing effect, rallying the very forces of the body

most concerned in ridding it of tubercular infection, improving nutrition, bringing restful sleep, and through the pleasurable exercise incident to outdoor living, quickening and deepening the respirations, and thus promoting the local effects of cold where it is most needed in the lungs. Such tonic effect is increased by the sunshine, and diversion of mind, incident to such mode of living. It is not a question of cold storage, or of life in a cave at a constant temperature, with a view to the absolute freezing out of the germs of such disease. In a culture tube the bacillus is simply made dormant by a degree of cold that proves fatal to it in the lungs. It is the resisting power of the body that destroys the germ, benumbed and weakened by lowering the temperature. Hence it is of great interest and importance that the very cold which hinders the growth of the bacillus helps the body to react against it. In short, outdoor living and inhalation of cold air, must be so managed, and carried to such an extent, as to stimulate the patient as well as discourage the bacillus.

There should be no discomfort through inadequate clothing, it being the local application of cold to the lungs, and not to the external surface of the body, that is effective. Indeed warm clothing is of service by enabling colder air to be taken into the lungs without depressing effect. It is better also to become habituated to this sort of living somewhat gradually, the body, when enfeebled by disease, requiring time to react, exposure to cold without reaction being injurious instead of beneficial. The patient must appear rested, and not exhausted by the measures employed.

If reaction does occur, the ability to digest food improves also, and it becomes possible to aid recovery by forced feeding, which likewise enables greater cold to be born without depression. It is not fat accumulation through forced feeding and rest in bed, that is required, however beneficial such a regimen may be in nervous prostration. It may be well to begin in this way with a patient that is greatly exhausted, but as soon as possible the rule should be, forced feeding and life in the open air. The effect of improved nutrition of this sort is enormous. It has been found possible by forced feeding to deter-

mine the sex in bees and tadpoles, showing what a profound influence nutrition has upon vital processes. If it is possible to modify the development of sex by such means, it surely is possible to modify in like manner the resisting power of the body against disease. Thus it becomes evident why the bacillus of tuberculosis is destroyed by a degree of cold applied to the lungs that would have no such effect outside the body. The germ made inactive by the lowering of the temperature is consumed by processes akin to digestion.

The question is often raised as to the possibility of destroying the microbes of disease without injury to the patient. But we have here a case in which the very thing that tends to overcome the microbe benefits the patient through stimulation of the vital forces in the manner that has been indicated. It is a two-edged method cutting both ways.

The writer has entertained these views in regard to the curability of consumption for nearly twenty years, and has witnessed a considerable number of instances of recovery in conformity to them, mostly through change of occupation. One patient left a store and went on a farm, another went to sea for several years, another became a house to house canvasser, another rode about the country buying produce, another, who had been to Florida without improvement, engaged in engineering work on a railroad in the winter in Canada, another made no change of occupation, but was simply much in the open air and slept in a very cool room at night. All these were unmistakable cases of tuberculosis that recovered, and have remained well for years. And I might add another in the person of a well known State official, and member of this Conference, who no longer ago than last evening, told me that he belonged to a family of consumptives, and that he himself had had the disease and recovered through change of occupation, involving increased outdoor living. The failures observed during the same period, aside from those due to lack of conformity to the proper regimen, were due for the most part to alcoholism, depression from financial and other anxieties, violent coughing and irritation of the throat from laryngeal extension of the disease, and especially to inoculation with pus infection in

addition to the tubercular, a thing to be avoided if possible, at all hazards, it lessening the patient's chances greatly. There are cases also, which with our present knowledge, are best suited to surgical intervention, the disease being located in the bones, or the peritoneal cavity, or elsewhere, inaccessible to the local effects of temperature change.

But there are many cases in which such change of occupation as would be advantageous, is not possible, or in which the patient does not use proper judgment, and needs instruction and care. For these cases, and generally, there is a rational basis for the organization of sanitarium treatment, not for purposes of quarantine, which is impracticable because of the great number of cases, but for the purpose of starting those who are in the initiatory and curable stages of the disease on the road to recovery, teaching them the regimen needful for their own salvation, and likewise the measures necessary for the protection of others, so that after a period of sanitarium discipline and instruction, along the lines indicated, they may go to their homes without detriment to themselves or others. The adoption of such a policy would tend also to lessen materially the prevalence of the disease through the diffusion of correct ideas among the general public. Sanitaria conducted on these lines would not become mere homes for consumptives, over whose doors might justly be placed the inscription, "Who enters here leaves hope behind."

With the enlarged resources of State aid, every detail of the subject might be worked out successfully, and we should know just what to do with pus cases, and pulmonary cases, and those of a laryngeal nature, or those affecting the bones and other parts of the body. The records of such institutions might also be made to contribute valuable information as to the vulnerability of special organs and tissues of the body, due to defective development, heredity, and the like.

From the general course of the discussion it may be inferred that mountain climate, quickening and deepening respiration, and increasing the local and tonic effects of cold, is advantageous, but not indispensable, except perhaps in warm countries. In temperate regions sanitaria may be located successfully

almost anywhere, and in many cases the proper principles of treatment may be carried out successfully, even in ordinary medical practice. In perfecting the regimen necessary, and in studying the selection of cases, and other phases of the entire subject, the enlarged resources of State aid would yield results not to be had in any other way, and repaying any expenditure involved a thousand fold.

Chairman KNOPE.—I regret to report that Dr. Pryor is unable to come. We are fortunate, however, in having with us Dr. Alfred Meyer, of New York, whom I will ask to open the discussion. His experience is equally as great as Dr. Pryor's.

#### DISCUSSION ON WHY THE OPEN AIR TREATMENT OF CONSUMPTION SUCCEEDS.

Dr. ALFRED MEYER.—I think if we understand Dr. Veeder, his point of view is that the fundamental principle underlying the cure of consumption depends upon the cold in the air. However interesting the data he has brought together may be, I personally believe he will not have the medical profession behind him in that point of view. The knowledge is general I think among professional men, that the evidence brought to bear upon human life and disease from the test tube is not absolutely reliable, but as long as the doctor has brought up the test tube, I would like to refer to the work done years ago by a well known authority on the propagation of the germ involved in this disease, which showed a marvelous resistance to cold. The experiments were made in Germany. The bacilli in sputum were put out doors in a temperature which was from fourteen to fifteen degrees below the freezing point on the fresh snow for two weeks, and these bacilli were just as active afterward as they were before. Two objects should be considered, the causation of the disease and its cure. Firstly, the disease is caused by the organism of tuberculosis, and, secondly, and perhaps more important of the two, by peculiarity of disposition, of which we might just as well say we know nothing at all. We have not learned what all the peculiarities of the individual constitution are. Now as to this cure by cold air. To my mind, and I have had a large experience, I do not be-

lieve the good results are due to one factor. It seems illogical to look for one factor, because many things go against the predisposition to the disease in the individual and tend toward its cure. The best results, I think, are attained by sanatoria for the cure of the disease, which give just as much particular supervision to exercise and rest as to the question of bathing and temperature. These things have just as much effect as the temperature. As a matter of fact we know the disease is being cured in all types of climate, in all types of temperature.

Now one additional point before closing. The doctor refers to the existence of the disease and the absence of the disease at various points of the globe from which he draws his conclusion. Now this also seems to me imperfect. I need only refer medical men to the history of the measles in the Faroe islands. There had not been an epidemic of measles there for a period of sixty-five years, and no one under that age had ever had the measles, when accidentally the disease was introduced by one individual, and everybody on the island under that age got the disease. I can imagine some one before this great epidemic stating the peculiar fact that these islands had no measles and possibly drawing new theories as to the disease, perhaps attributing it to climatic conditions, or meteorological conditions, who, if he had lived one year longer, would have seen it was due to other things than temperature. I think the medical profession will agree with me that a cure is due to a great many things, to some of which I have hastily referred. You can cure tuberculosis, I believe we are curing it in New York. We are trying to relieve the distressed poor by using the fire-escapes. There was a little consumptive girl who refused to leave her home and the disease has been treated successfully in her own apartments with the help of the fire-escape. I don't know whether using the fire-escape is possible in the average city. I think the fact that in 65 per cent. of cases examined ulcerations which have healed up are found, shows there is a cure for this disease.

Chairman Knopf stated if there was no one else who wished to discuss the paper, he would allow Dr. Veeder an opportunity to reply to Dr. Meyer.

Dr. VEEDER.—I wish to say that the experiment with regard to the effect of temperature exclusively on the bacillus in the test tube showed that it is simply made dormant by temperature alone, but it is a very different case in the living body where all the forces of the body are rallied, the power to produce heat, the increase of food, everything of that kind is brought up actively. That is one part of the subject. This thing does not stand on one foot. It has two legs. The effect of temperature on the bacilli is undoubtedly as described. It will not produce toxine if it is kept below a certain temperature. At a temperature which is about the temperature of the body it will begin to live, but in a dormant condition, not producing toxine. Now as I said this has two feet. We lessen the power of the bacilli to do harm and we increase the powers of the body through the tonic effects of cool, outdoor life.

With regard to the parts of the habitable globe that are free from the bacilli being the cold regions, my information came directly from one of the most famous Arctic explorers, Lieutenant Peary, with whom I was placed in correspondence and contact some years ago. It struck me very forcibly—and there were those associated with him who had made excursions into the far north at other points north as well as Greenland—who found it unknown and even when the disease was imported into this severely cold climate it died out and disappeared entirely.

The third session of the Conference was adjourned by the President at 6 p. m.

#### FOURTH SESSION.

*Wednesday, November 19, 1902, Senate Chamber.*

The Conference was called to order by President Stewart at 8.30 p. m., who invited to the Chair, Prof. F. H. Briggs, Superintendent of the State Industrial School, Rochester, and Chairman of the Committee on Dependent, Neglected, Delinquent and Defective Children, who presented the report of the committee, and presided throughout the session.

## REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON DEPENDENT, NEGLECTED, DELINQUENT AND DEFECTIVE CHILDREN.

In presenting its report to this Conference, the Committee on Dependent, Defective, Delinquent and Neglected Children desires to emphasize the need of more general, thorough, systematic preventive work along all lines. The health officer of a city, who should confine his efforts to curing the cases of smallpox that had developed, and should make no effort at all, or only very slight effort, to prevent the disease by vaccination and sanitary measures, would be regarded as an incompetent, and dismissed in disgrace.

Spain had contented herself in Cuba for centuries with trying to cure cases of yellow fever, and annually epidemics of yellow fever claimed their hecatombs of Cubans, and reached forth with their deadly power to the shores of the United States; but one year of American prevention sufficed to cause yellow fever almost entirely to disappear.

New York State to-day is dealing with the problem of dependent, defective, delinquent and neglected children very much in the same way that Spain did with the yellow fever in Cuba:—it places the emphasis upon the cure, not upon prevention. In spite of the best work that institutions can do, in spite of the placing out agencies, children's courts and probation systems, the institutions are full, children's aid societies and other associations for placing out children are advertising for homes—and as rapidly as children are placed out others appear to take their places, and so the process goes on unceasingly. Whether children can best be cared for in institutions or placed in homes bears the same relation to the solution of the problem as does a discussion of what kind of medicine will best alleviate cases of tuberculosis, whereas the best remedy is to prevent persons from having tuberculosis.

Before proceeding to the discussion of preventive measures it is fitting that the causes producing the class we are considering should be set forth, and for this purpose the children embraced in the titles "dependent, defective, delinquent and neglected" may be divided into two groups: (a) dependent, neglected; (b) defective.

The causes that produce the first group are: 1. Parental. Orphanage, including half-orphanage, destitution of parents, the separation of parents, intemperance of one or both parents, illegitimacy, incompetency of parents. 2. Educational. Too little of children's time is now spent in school, and school instruction and employment are not sufficiently diversified. 3. Social. The general apathy of thinking people in regard to the welfare of children until they become public charges.

In one institution for children in Pennsylvania, out of 7,282 cases reported, 4,657 had suffered loss of one or both parents, or their parents had separated, constituting more than 64 per cent. of the entire number. Out of a total of 562 commitments for the biennial period ending September 30, 1896, 235 had intemperate fathers and 55 had intemperate mothers, showing that about 55 per cent. had lacked proper parental care because of intemperance. Out of 168 boys committed to the Lyman School for Boys, at Westboro, Mass., for the year ending September 30, 1899, 79 suffered because one or both parents were intemperate, and 67 had suffered parental casualties.

Out of the 333 dependent children admitted to the care of the Boston Children's Placing Out Department during the year 1901 only 21.62 per cent. had both parents living, and in 8.10 per cent. the parents had separated, leaving but 13.52 per cent. of the children whose parents maintained the conjugal relation. Five and ten one-hundredths per cent. were illegitimate, and in the case of 7.80 per cent. one or both parents were intemperate. The records of another institution show that out of a total of 9,652 children, 5,139 had suffered parental casualties, and that 28.5 per cent. had intemperate parents. The lack of proper parental care through death, separation or intemperance is, therefore, the principal cause of dependency and delinquency. That this must be so may be readily inferred when, as shown by the foregoing statistics, orphanage is the rule inside of institutions for children and the exception in the country at large. A knowledge of the cause suggests the remedy. Death during the age at which children are born and reared is unnatural. Man was intended to develop, mature and decline, and where death interrupts either one of the first two of these processes some preventable cause has intervened.

Read the history of the plagues that formerly devastated Europe, call to mind the ravages of diphtheria which have taken place within the memory of those that are not yet old, consider the epidemics of typhoid fever that are still causing cities to sit in mourning because of criminal negligence in not providing a pure water supply. Science and experience have both proved that death from these causes is preventable. The health officer of Rochester reduced infant mortality in a large degree by establishing pure milk stations, and philanthropists in other cities are doing the same beneficent work. These are but examples of what may be done in preventing disease and death, and simply indicate the method by which parental casualties may be reduced and dependency and delinquency prevented. But only a beginning has been made in this work, only comparatively few brave pioneers have blazed the way and opened up a vista of the fertile fields of the future. The great mass of people are still ignorant of even the primary laws of hygiene, negligent of the most simple precautions and ready to offer battle to the health authorities when they attempt to compel compliance with wise sanitary regulations. We have in this State a Department of Agriculture, the work of which is supplemented by the State Agricultural Experiment Station at Geneva, and the Agricultural College at Cornell University. These two institutions are constantly investigating as to the best method of raising any given crop, of how to produce the best butter and cheese, how to care properly for milk, and prevent fruit and plant diseases. In short, everything that may benefit the agricultural, horticultural and stock-raising interests of the State receives the careful attention of these institutions, and the results of their investigations are spread broadcast all over the State by bulletins which are eagerly sought after and acted upon by those engaged in such pursuits; not only so, but farmers' institutes are held throughout the State, at which the State Department provides the best and most progressive talent available to disseminate knowledge that will be of most assistance to farmers.

In the judgment of this committee a similar propaganda should be inaugurated and carried on with relation to the

public health by the State Health Department. No work undertaken by the State can be of such great importance as this, for no material consideration can compensate for preventable loss of life of the bread-winners of the community.

Here and there throughout the State devoted physicians and philanthropists are endeavoring to spread information in regard to that dread disease, tuberculosis, which annually claims thousands of victims, and the great mass of our citizens are ignorant of how to prevent it, and physicians are almost equally helpless in its cure. The deadly leaky-sewer-pipe-joint and improperly vented trap spread scarlet fever, diphtheria and measles, while parents and landlords ignore the cause, and physicians and undertakers are kept busy by the effects. Throughout the farming community, in the smaller towns and in towns even of larger growth, the proximity of kitchen drains to wells is the cause of many deaths from typhoid fever. It is a well known fact that many a city dweller has returned from a vacation in the country bringing with him the typhoid bacillus, and not long since the second largest city of the State had numerous cases of typhoid because of polluted water supply. Hence the committee urges the need of a campaign of education that shall arouse the public to the dangers that threaten the health of the people, and shall teach them how to prevent the ravages of disease. To this end the formation of health associations in every community is desirable, these associations to act as centres of agitation, education and co-operation.

Bulletins on all subjects affecting health should be prepared frequently, and scattered broadcast by the health authorities, and these should be reinforced by trained instructors, both men and women, who shall devote their time to instructing people in the best methods of preserving health. As properly cooked food is one of the chief requisites this may well be made one of the subjects of instruction. The fact was noted by the newspapers a few days since of women who were employed by the Canadian Department of Agriculture to go through the dairy districts with a wagon fitted up as a complete dairy

having every appliance for making the best possible butter. Thus equipped one woman goes through each neighborhood and teaches each housewife how to make butter properly. What a blessing to communities could instructors in bread-making, be sent forth similarly equipped to teach women how to make bread. Not only in preventing disease by so nourishing the body that the invasion of hostile germs would be resisted, but in preventing drunkenness, this would be of great value.

It is suggested that the bulletins of the Department of Labor might profitably embrace articles on the prevention of disease. This, in the judgment of your committee, is quite as important as the immigration at the port of New York, a record of strikes and lockouts, building operations, etc. These bulletins, through the agency of trades organizations, could do much to prevent disease by disseminating a knowledge of sanitary and preventive measures among workingmen and their families.

Another cause of orphanage which is largely preventable is accidental death due to premature explosion of blasts through ignorance or carelessness. Public opinion should be so thoroughly aroused against the practice of allowing careless and inefficient men to handle explosives in blasting work, that contractors would not dare to allow any but the most skilful men to do such work.

Then, too, the lack of care in the construction of scaffolding and in testing ropes and chains on derricks and other hoisting apparatus, the improper guarding and inspection of machinery, all contribute to needless and untimely deaths, and thereby deprive many families of their bread-winners and protectors.

The laxity with which the marital relation is observed is a fruitful source from which dependent, defective and delinquent children spring; and not until public opinion is aroused, can the evil be lessened. All charity workers have had experience with men who abandon their families entirely, or refuse or neglect to support them, and all are agreed that some means should be devised to compel husbands and fathers to support their families; for putting in jail or the penitentiary simply affords the loafer the idleness which he craves, and leaves the

children to run at large, while the mother endeavors to perform the service that the father will not.

Passing to the part that education may play in the work of prevention of delinquency, particularly, the committee desires to emphasize the significance of the fact that whenever vacation schools are opened in the large cities the applications for admission are greatly in excess of the capacity of the school building, and the obvious explanation is that the subjects and methods of instruction are so attractive and interesting to the children that they go from sheer love of the work. Whereas a great number of children are truants in desire if not in actual fact from the regular work of the public schools, for the reason that the work does not appeal to them. The cast iron mold of ages in too many instances still shapes the ordinary school work of to-day. The large number of pupils that each teacher is required to instruct requires that all shall largely conform to the common mold, with the result that the greater number of those who will not conform are driven forth as unworthy and fall into ways of evil thereby.

Your committee desires also in this connection to call attention to the fact that for the children of poor people in large villages and cities there are not provisions for natural, healthful recreation. In search of such recreation they congregate upon the streets, where they can engage in no sports except in violation of law. The fact to which Mayor Low has lately called attention by his communication to the School Board of New York city is equally true for all the cities and larger towns of the State; and that is that school buildings costing immense sums are in use only about thirty hours per week, only 17 6-7 per cent. of the time, while the children learn nothing but evil from their enforced environment upon the street.

In many homes both parents have to be bread winners, and the children, from early morning until evening, are left to their own devices, and experience has shown that too often these devices lead them to the door of the reform school; and too frequently, when the mother is not compelled to be absent from home, her home cares and duties are so burdensome and oppressive that it is a welcome relief when the children go upon the

street. What so natural, so proper, so conducive to good morals and to good citizenship as that the children should be taken to the school building as the father goes to his work, and that there, under the proper supervision, they should engage in healthful sports, in physical and industrial training, until the hour when school ordinarily opens? Then let the school work be so diversified by study, manual training work and play that the hours will pass pleasantly and profitably until work hours are over and the parents return home. And then let the school again open its doors in the evening to the older boys and girls, where they may have their clubs and their social intercourse.

Your committee cannot too strongly commend the work which the University and other settlements are doing in this particular, but they believe and urge that the public school buildings and grounds should be devoted, not six hours daily, but sixteen, to the welfare of the children. Boys from fourteen to eighteen, who congregate upon street corners and develop into gangs that menace the peace and safety of the neighborhood, would not so congregate were there some more attractive place for them to assemble; and for this purpose the need of large playgrounds in connection with every school building is emphasized. New York city is setting the remainder of the State an excellent example of preventive work. Not only are her philanthropic citizens active, but the municipality, by the opening of its school buildings and the establishment of municipal playgrounds, deserves the highest praise. Not alone every weekday but on Sundays, as well, should the school houses be open. Who that has observed the streets of a large city on Sunday and seen the numbers of youths congregated in front of tobacconists, confectionery and baker shops can doubt the pressing need of some legitimate, attractive place for boys to assemble on Sunday. More attention devoted to technical instruction would serve to hold the interest of many boys and prepare them for useful lives who are, under the present system, lost to society. In short, it is contended that the schools exist for the sole benefit of the children, not the children for the schools,

It is believed that the apathy of the general public in regard to the welfare of children has much to do in causing dependent, delinquent and neglected children. The great majority of well-intentioned, well-to-do people in any given community give absolutely no attention to children who are in danger of falling into evil ways, but let one of such children be arrested, convicted of an offense and committed to an institution, and the number of those anxious to give or secure him employment, take an interest in him, see that he is in nights, etc., is legion. In other words, they ignore the child until he is a criminal so far as desire is concerned, and then want to do something for him. The members of this committee do not give place to anyone in their admiration for the probation system and for the self-sacrificing work done by probation officers for the welfare of wayward children; but they do plead that the rights of these children to be saved from the steps that lead to crime shall be recognized, and that prevention rather than cure shall be the effort of the philanthropic people of every community.

But defective children remain to be considered. Your committee has consulted recognized experts as to the causes that produce feeble-minded and epileptic children, and they all agree that bad heredity and intemperance are the predominating causes. The superintendent of the poor of one of the counties of this State is authority for the statement that such county is now caring for nearly one hundred defectives in State and county institutions, because that county ignored two or three feeble-minded families in one corner of its borders. Warner's American Charities is authority for the statement that in the decade following the removal of all restrictions on the sale of intoxicating liquors in Norway, insanity increased 50 per cent. and congenital idiocy increased 150 per cent. The increase in the number of feeble-minded in this country has been, from 10,000 in 1850 to 100,000 in 1890. Every feeble-minded woman left outside of a custodial asylum during the child-bearing period becomes the source from which a tribe of imbeciles, epileptics, tramps and criminals spring. Instead of ceasing to enlarge the institutions for the feeble-minded and the epileptic because of the immediate expense, the State of

New York, even by the issuance of bonds, should at once provide for the segregation of all its defectives, and thereby protect the future State; and wise statesmanship, as shown by facts submitted, would double the present rate of license for the sale of intoxicating drinks, restrict the number of such licenses to not more than one to every thousand of population, and prohibit saloons within the residence districts of every city.

By the Committee,

F. H. BRIGGS, *Chairman.*

J. H. HAMILTON,

FREDERIC ALMY,

MAX LANDSBERG,

EDW. J. HUSSEY,

F. E. BAUER.

Chairman BRIGGS.—I now have the pleasure, ladies and gentlemen, to introduce to you, one who has been a pioneer, as it were, in the work of children's courts and the probation system, and who stands forth prominently before the people of this commonwealth as one who is doing effective work for the welfare of children, Judge Murphy of Buffalo.

Hon. Thomas Murphy, of Buffalo, then read a paper on "Children's Courts and the Probation System," prefacing it by the following remarks:

#### CHILDREN'S COURTS AND THE PROBATION SYSTEM.

*Ladies and Gentlemen.*—My paper is entitled "The Juvenile Court of Buffalo," and is designed to give a description of that court and the operation of the probation system. I have endeavored to write a paper describing that court and that system in as brief a manner as possible. I have been asked here to-night how it was that we got around the State law which provides that adults only over the age of sixteen years may have the benefit of the probation system. For the information of those who are not familiar with the matter, I desire to say that the Juvenile Court of Buffalo and the probation system were insti-

tuted there by a special act. At that session of the Legislature in which our law was enacted they passed a general State law whereby adults over the age of sixteen years may be placed upon probation, but Buffalo is the only city, the only municipality in the State of New York, to-day where children have the same privilege in that respect as adults now possess. Of course that is a condition which we hope to see changed in the near future.

### THE JUVENILE COURT OF BUFFALO.

The Juvenile Court of Buffalo is held in a building separate and apart from any other court house, and is presided over by the police justice. All children under the age of sixteen years are tried in this court for violations of the Penal Code committed within the city. Violations of ordinances are tried usually in the Municipal Court, a court of civil jurisdiction. The process of arresting children is the same as in adult cases, except as to the matter of detention before trial.

When arrested, the child is brought to the police station. His parents are immediately sent for, who furnish bail for his appearance in court. Unless the offense be very serious the parent is accepted on the bond, though he has no property qualifications. In many of the trivial cases the child is allowed to go solely upon his promise to appear in court. I cannot recall a case where a child who has been allowed thus to go upon his honor has failed to appear without some bona fide reason. Locking the child up in the station house is almost always avoided.

Sessions of the court are held semi-weekly, Tuesdays and Fridays, and are usually of short duration, beginning at 2 o'clock in the afternoon. The court room contains a desk for the judge and one for the clerk and stenographer. Seated about and within easy hearing distance of all that transpires, are the probation officers, ten in number. Outside the rail, and in a room adjacent to the court, are the children to be tried, the police officers, parents and witnesses. Rarely are reporters present, as it is deemed best not to publish these cases, particularly the names of the children. When a case is called the

police officer comes forward with the child to the judge's desk. The parents and witnesses follow. The charge is then read. The child is asked to state whether the same is true or untrue, whether he pleads guilty or not guilty. If the plea be not guilty witnesses are sworn for the people and on behalf of the defendant as in adult cases, though the examination is less formal. Lawyers do not practice in this court, and the Police Court audience is absent.

If the child is convicted he is sent to some reformatory or home, or sentence suspended and placed on probation, or sentence suspended with a reprimand. If placed on probation he is given a card which contains the name of the probation officer to whose care he is committed, and all other necessary instruction.

During the year ending July 1, 1902, 1,002 children—950 boys and 52 girls—were brought into this court. The following table shows the disposition of these cases.

Discharged . . . . .	213
Sentence suspended with reprimand . . . . .	184
Placed on probation . . . . .	485
Placed in institutions . . . . .	120
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	1,002
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All grades of crimes other than capital are tried here as misdemeanors. This is new only as to age. The Penal Code has for a long time provided that children under the age of fourteen years may, in the discretion of the court, be tried on a charge of felony, except it be a capital crime, in the same manner as if it were a misdemeanor. I should like to see that section amended so that it would read sixteen instead of fourteen. I should also like to see a law enacted which would provide that a conviction of such a child would not affect his credibility as a witness in any court thereafter. Many a man has been handicapped through life by being unable, without fear of disgrace, to answer the question "Have you ever been convicted of any crime?" though his offense may have been committed in the tender and early years of childhood.

It will be seen from the figures quoted above, that, as has been well said, the keystone of this court is the probation system. Much, indeed, can be said about the advantages of a separate children's court and its procedure, but we should have felt that the arch was incomplete had probation proved a failure. Some offenses may be of such a shocking nature that the child should be sent direct to some reformatory as an example to others. Some may be so trivial that nothing more than a reprimand is required. The great majority of cases require an intermediate form of treatment. Incarceration may be too severe, and a reprimand may be too lenient to command respect for the law. Probation is the solution. It aims to restrain and reform without confinement or separation from home and friends, under the refining and elevating influence of the probation officer. When a child is placed on probation he is given to understand that he has an opportunity to redeem himself; that upon his conduct alone depends the ultimate disposition of his case. If his conduct is good he may remain at home, be with his friends, and finally be discharged. If his conduct is bad he may be sent to some institution any time during the probationary period. He is required to report to the probation officer at such intervals, usually once a week, as said officer may direct. When attending school he is required to bring a report from his teacher, showing his attendance and conduct. If not at school, and old and strong enough, he is required to engage in some useful employment, unless good cause be shown for his idleness. Many a child before considered incorrigible has, under this system, become an excellent pupil and of exemplary conduct in general. The term of probation is three months, unless sooner discharged. The term may be extended from time to time, in the discretion of the court. The child is discharged any time upon recommendation of the probation officer. If the parent be indifferent or careless, his duties are pointed out to him. As a rule the officers and parents work well together. Parents frequently request, for their own comfort, evidently, that a child be kept on probation though the officer deems his discharge advisable. When a child is placed on probation a change is noticed at once in his manner, decorum

and habits. Realizing that if his conduct be not good he may be brought before the court again, and perhaps sent to some institution, he is, of course, anxious that his conduct shall be pleasing to the probation officer. Notwithstanding that in many of the cases felonies have been committed, of the large number of cases brought before me during said year but eighty-five have returned for violation of parole or on new charges.

One of the greatest deterrents of crime is the thought of its consequences. During the term of probation the child learns to think. We are thus cultivating that which distinguishes the successful from the unsuccessful, the man who thinks and the man who does not.

One of our little fellows was required by a probation officer to report to her Saturday nights. He loves adventure and has a roving disposition. By some means—in the early part of the week—a few months ago he obtained transportation to Chicago, but couldn't get back. So he went to a police station and asked them if they would not procure a ticket for him, that he must be back Saturday night. "Why must you be back at that time?" said the officer. "I want to see a lady there," the boy replied. "A lady," said the officer, "who is she?" "Well," said the lad, "she is a lady that was good to me once when I was 'pinched' in Buffalo." He got the ticket. This is but one of the many interesting stories in connection with this work. It illustrates the earnestness and sincerity with which the children treat their terms of parole.

Of course, without able, self-sacrificing, painstaking probation officers the system would be a failure. They should not only be discreet, intelligent and sympathetic, but should possess tact as well. In this I am particularly fortunate. The question of enacting the law by which this court was established was first agitated by a committee appointed by the Charity Organization Society on which I had the honor to serve. One of the most active and persistent members was the able Secretary of the Society. He is now President of our Board of Probation Officers. A former school principal, a most estimable lady, is secretary. Besides these, two exceptionally bright ladies, each at the head of a social settlement, viz., Welcome

Hall and The Remington, the Supreme President of the Ladies' Catholic Benevolent Association, two excellent truant officers of our School Department, an energetic agent of the Charity Organization Society, the venerable president of the Hebrew Board of Charities, and a clerk in our mayor's office constitute said Board. These ladies and gentlemen of whom I am justly proud, receive no pay, but could not be more faithful and interested were they receiving princely salaries. All the good they do the public can never know.

The Hebrew, Catholic and Protestant religions are represented on this Board, and the children report when practicable to officers of their own religious faith, as required by law. Thus is the child made to feel that its religion is respected. In treating with children I consider this very important. The Jewish child finds a sympathetic hand pointing upward. The Catholic and Protestant are encouraged, each according to his own conception, to maintain as his ideal the beautiful life and sad but glorious death of Him who said "Suffer the little children to come unto me."

#### DISCUSSION ON CHILDREN'S COURTS AND THE PROBATION SYSTEM.

Chairman BRIGGS.—The discussion of this paper will now be opened by one who has been identified for years with preventive work in Rochester, but whose good deeds have caused him to be known in the State at large, the Rev. Dr. Landsberg.

Rev. MAX LANDSBERG, D. D.—I consider it one of the most promising features of our meetings of the State Conference of Charities and Correction, as well as of the National Conference, that this new department of juvenile courts and probation officers has been added to the usual quota, and I regard it as especially auspicious that we had a description of the system, a plain description of how it is managed by a kind and sympathetic judge, and how it works under the assistance of a number of probation officers, such as are described to us; for it seems to me that to an intelligent body of charity workers it requires nothing but a simple exposition of the system to make them friends and enthusiastic to work for the promotion of the same and to be missionaries in order to further legislation

by which the exceptional condition, the exceptional fortunate condition of Buffalo — which has always marched at the head of the procession in charitable work and has been a teacher not only of the State but of the whole country in charitable organization and the proper treatment of the dependent classes — may be extended to every city of our State and finally be introduced in every State of the Union.

Probation laws in juvenile courts have been in existence for a number of years in Massachusetts and also in England, and for a short time in the county in which Denver, Colorado, is situated. Juvenile courts have also been in existence, as I have been told by one of the gentlemen from New York to-day, although in an unsatisfactory manner as compared with the condition in Buffalo, in the great city of New York, but he says even in its deficient condition it has done a remarkable amount of good.

This work I consider as the most important part of the work before us, because it is most eminently preventive. It does not deal with the hardened criminal, it does not deal with paupers and dependents whom it is very, very difficult to redeem, or whom it is largely impossible to redeem, but it deals with those who are standing at the beginning of their life and in whom it may be the question of an accidental condition whether they are turned into a criminal career or whether they shall become citizens of the State and the country of which their parents and their fellow-citizens have a right to be proud.

The most beautiful feature of this matter, as it has been described to us by Judge Murphy, is that a child when it commits a first offense is not taken to a police court, is not taken into the surroundings which are commonly associated with the transactions in police courts, is not committed to jail and brought in contact with the criminal classes, but he is taken to a judge who takes a fatherly interest in that child, to a judge who talks to the child like a good teacher, who talks to the child as, for instance, Judge Tuthill does in Chicago, of whom I have heard wonders of accomplishment in this direction. There is certainly a tide, as was said by Father Hendrick to-day, in the career especially of boys, and that tide in the life of

such young people occurs when children are for the first time brought in contact with the law. There, as was said incidentally, talking on another question, is our great opportunity. There is the opportunity of presenting to the child for his whole lifetime, that the State as represented in its officers is not opposed to him, does not want of the boy that he shall have no fun, is not his enemy, as every policeman appears to be to the spirited boy, to the boy who has a lively temperament, when he prevents him from ball playing or tells him to keep off the grass, but that the State is his friend, that the State wants him to develop, wants him to let out his youthful spirits, but wants him to keep them within the proper boundaries. Now if such a child understands and learns from his own experience that this is the sentiment that the government has towards him, it brings to bear upon his character an influence which lasts through his whole lifetime.

There is a good illustration in an occurrence that happened but two days ago in the city of Schenectady. Three young boys went to school—two of the boys ten years old and one eight years old. What did they do? They took a piece of rock and put it on the rails. Why did they do it? Did they want to do mischief? Did they want to destroy anything? Did they want to threaten lives? No. It was playfulness; they wanted to have the fun of seeing the train scatter the rock and throw it away from the rails. But what occurred? Fortunately a freight train was the first to come, and this was derailed, without any loss of life, and stopped two express trains coming from either side from being wrecked on this rock. Of course, as soon as the boys saw what they had done they ran away. They were scared; they were frightened. A police officer went after them and he found them in the school in tears. What did he do with them? Had that been in Buffalo they would have been brought to Judge Murphy, who would have talked to them. If it had been in Chicago they would have been taken to Judge Tuthill. As it was they were brought to the police station and they were locked up in jail and they were kept there all night. Now it is the method of people who don't know anything about boys to

judge them by the mischief that has been done, by the damage that has been done, but the sensible judge takes into consideration what the boys intended. The motive here is playfulness, although they have done a great deal of mischief. They did not commit a crime. These boys have been shut up in jail, they have been kept there probably all night; in spite of their tears they were not dismissed, and in their hearts a foundation has been laid to consider every officer of the law as their enemy instead of understanding that the government is their friend.

It is very plausible, as Judge Murphy said, that the keystone of the whole system is the probation system. The judge alone would be helpless to influence the children, but with the assistance of the probation officers he is a factor in building up the character of the boys. It has been said that it is a function of the friendly visitor who goes to dependent families to remain in constant acquaintance with the condition of these families. It is in much the same way the function of the probation officer to remain in constant contact with these boys who are committed to his care. It is a great pity that the law that has been specially made for Buffalo, which extends the probation system to that city, does not extend that system to cities where it would do great good, instead of confining it to adults. It is a great pity that it is not now in the city of New York and in every one of the cities of our State, and I hope that it will not be long before this whole institution, as it has been described by the judge, including the probation system—and the probation officers should have in their charge not only criminals over sixteen but also those under sixteen—will be one of the features in every city of our State of New York.

FATHER KINKAD.—I would like to ask Judge Murphy what is done with the children who are arrested between Friday and Tuesday. He says the court is in session only twice a week.

JUDGE MURPHY.—I have already said, Father, that the parents are sent for and the child is bailed out; in trifling cases allowed to go upon promising to appear in court.

Father KINKEAD.—He is not, then, detained anywhere?

Judge MURPHY.—Detention is almost always avoided. Of course there are cases which are very serious where the child may be committed until the next session of the court, but in almost every case that is the fact.

Father KINKEAD.—But when that is done where is he confined?

Judge MURPHY.—Placed in what is called the detention room in the jail. That is one thing we lack in Buffalo that they have in Chicago. In Chicago they have a house of detention, especially set apart for children who are detained for court. When detained in Buffalo he must be sent to a room which is assigned for him in our jail, but it is not very often a child is sent there.

Father KINKEAD.—I have another remark to make. With all due respect to the court in Buffalo, I do not entirely agree with Dr. Landsberg in saying that the children's court in New York is inferior to the court in Buffalo. A great deal of time has been spent in developing the children's court law in New York city, and in that court, a court of special sessions, a child is entitled to be heard by three judges instead of one, if he demands it. But without going into the legal powers of each of the courts, I must say I cannot agree with the Doctor in his statement that the court in New York city is inferior to the court in Buffalo. In my opinion it is superior, in having a greater number of judges to determine a difficult case, the children having the privilege of having their cases tried and adjudged by three judges if it be found necessary in any particular instance.

Mr. JOHN MARTIN, New York.—It seems to me the report of this committee was especially noticeable, even among the excellent reports this Conference has received, for the committee showed great courage in going behind the immediate subject that was presented to them to determine the causes that produce dependent, neglected, delinquent and defective children. Very often the charge is brought against organized charity, and against charity in general, especially by people with very radical notions, that it attends only to the symptoms

of the disease and doesn't go back to find the cause of the disease and remove it. This report, I think, entirely clears the committee of any charge of that kind.

The conclusion to which the committee came, that it is our business especially to remove the causes of the early death of the parents, will carry us, I think, very far. They hinted that, and logically we should be compelled to pay attention to the administration of factory hands, to compel the strict protection from machinery, to take care that blasting and other dangerous processes be conducted only by competent men, and I think logically we should be carried forward to the greater strengthening of the factory hand and the imitation of the best regulations in Massachusetts and other states in this Union and of the countries of Europe.

Further than that, it would seem that if the dependence of the children in so many cases is due to removal of the wage earner in the prime of life, that surely we should be obliged to consider very favorably any proposition which would mean the payment of something, compensation to some extent to the worker, as is done in Germany and in England, but is not done yet in New York State. If the children come upon the State, as the writer declares, in overwhelming proportion in consequence of the loss of one or both parents, and, as the writer hinted, this loss is very often due to preventable accidents in industry, or, as I think statistics of accidents in industry would show, in many cases, also to accidents that are called the act of God, it would appear only fair that the industry itself should in some way bear the financial burden of these preventable and unpreventable accidents by the establishment of some such system of compensation, for instance, a pension for the survivors of the destroyed wage worker, as is already done, as I said, in Germany and in England.

And still further, would it not mean that we should be compelled to be at any rate more sympathetic towards any movement for an increase of wages which would enable these workers to give themselves such rest and recreation as would tend to lengthen their lives and prevent their removal in the prime, or at any rate before the decline, of life and so save the chil-

dren from becoming dependent upon the State? It has been stated in the court, as we have all been reading within the last day or two, or the imputation is made, that the miners want to get as wages \$600 per annum for the head of a family, and it was said, somewhat sarcastically, perhaps somewhat humorously, that they might want to go for a few days in the year to the seaside. Since it has been proved by general experience that such days at the seaside occasionally are absolutely necessary to maintain in full working vigor for a normal period the man of average strength, I cannot help feeling this report of this committee must inevitably lead us, logically, of course, into sympathy with the spirit of such a claim or some scheme where it is no longer legal to employ men or permit certain industries in the State which tend to eliminate the wage earner.

Rev. THOMAS A. HENDRICK, LL. D., of Rochester.—I want to say, as one who has devoted some years to the treatment of delinquent, dependent, neglected and defective children, that of all the papers I have ever heard upon this subject the paper read by Superintendent Briggs impresses me most as full of sound, good sense. He goes into the causes of things and he treats the subject with the hand of an expert.

Two years ago, or three, when we met in this hall before, I took occasion to protest against the brutal treatment of this class by the State government. The State of New York has made some progress in the last hundred or more years since its formation, but in the treatment of this class it has stood about where it was then. The State has refused to Prof. Briggs the very things he suggested. I don't speak as speaking for him, I speak of what I know, living in the city of Rochester, as to what Prof. Briggs could do for these dependent children if he was given the assistance to which he is entitled from this State, but he was refused it. I heard a thrifty farmer say once that the only way to make money out of cattle was to starve it out of them. Now, there is in Rome a prison called the Mamertine prison, where the Romans used to put the chief victims of their triumphs, and there starve them to death. I

think that moral starvation is a great deal worse than physical starvation, and our State has made a practice, and still is following it to a large extent, of taking young men and young women, children who are not criminals except in a technical sense, and turning them out criminals.

I would like to see the destruction of that system throughout the State. The probation system is a rift in the clouds. I hope some day to see in our State, in lieu of the present system, a system based on the classification system.

I feel very strongly upon this point, because I have to deal with the poor victims of this system. I think it would be a merciful thing, if the State wants to proceed under this inadequate system, to establish something like the Mamertine prison, where they would be starved to death. It would be more economical and a more sensible way of treating this poor, unfortunate class.

Dr. WILLIAM O. STILLMAN, of Albany.—I have been very much interested in the papers that have been given this afternoon, particularly in that relating to the juvenile courts and probation system.

As we all know, there is a general State law which provides for the same system practically throughout the State for children over sixteen years of age. In its application, however, it has been limited practically to New York city. It is a very grave question whether it can be made entirely practicable in the smaller cities where comparatively few cases come up, not enough to justify having a separate court, a separate building and separate machinery for their consideration and care.

In regard to the probation system now practiced in Buffalo, as delineated in the excellent paper given by Judge Murphy, it seems to me there are three defects: In the first place, they have no place of detention separate and apart from the jail. There must come cases so serious in character that they cannot be allowed to go loose prior to trial, and it seems to me morally wrong to confine young children in jail if it can possibly be avoided. It lessens the chance for reform to say the least. In the next place children under sixteen years of age are not provided for. Plainly there are juvenile criminals

under the age of sixteen years that should have the benefit of the probation system, as has been suggested by one of the speakers, and furthermore, and it seems to me the greatest defect, that there should be but two hearings a week. It would seem that the cases ought to be brought up and considered more promptly. In these three respects it seems to me there is opportunity for improvement.

Now in some of the smaller cities, and I speak from some little experience in this class of work, being the executive officer of the local Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (The Mohawk and Hudson River Humane Society), which looks after a large number of cases (we have over 400 prosecutions a year), we must have some sort of probation which is practicable in the smaller cities. The plan which we have in operation in the cities of Albany and Troy, in each of which our local Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children has a house of detention absolutely under its own management, is this: By an order of the police in each city, all children coming into relations with the police are sent at once to our shelters, or houses of detention. They may be taken to the police court and discharged, but if they are detained at all they are sent to us. There are advantages in this. In the first place it results in each individual case being investigated by carefully trained officers. It is not left to the police or to accidental witnesses who may be summoned to come forward and tell what they know, but a very careful investigation is made of actual home conditions, whether they are being sent to school, whether the home conditions are what they should be morally and physically, whether there is a proper home atmosphere. It seems to me that is important and that arrangements ought to be made in all these cases involving juveniles that there should be a very careful investigation by the probation officers before the case is taken into court. We have found there are very great advantages in having a house of detention in its preventive effect. Many times children, as has been suggested, are not fit to be discharged, and detention a few days in our shelter serves as a warning of what may come. In this way the children are oftentimes, when they are

given a week, or two or three weeks, to reflect upon their conduct, turned into better paths. They are brought under influences calculated to bring out the best elements in their character. This plan of reaching the children and their confidence is of very, very great value, and possibly is not fully included in the probation system as it is now practiced.

Chairman BRIGGS.—The time has come for the opening of the next subject. Mr. Wendell is unavoidably absent, but I am sure that no one here will be disappointed when I announce to you the name of the speaker who is to take Mr. Wendell's place. For half a century the name of Brace has stood for the saving of thousands of children from disgrace and crime, and the sending them forth to new scenes, new environments, and making them men and women of whom this country is proud. It is, therefore, with great pleasure I introduce to you to speak to us on the subject of "The Prevention of Delinquency" Mr. Charles Loring Brace, of New York.

Mr. Brace read the following paper on "The Prevention of Delinquency":

#### THE PREVENTION OF DELINQUENCY.

I am very greatly disappointed that Mr. Evert J. Wendell cannot be with us this evening to tell us of his great work among vagrant boys of New York city. Mr. Wendell is a good speaker and a very interesting personality. As many of you know, he is a gentleman of high social position in New York city, who amid the distractions of many claims upon him, yet for years has devoted the largest part of his time to boys. He is a distinguished Harvard man, a leader in all collegiate affairs, and is always officially connected with the inter-scholastic athletic games. His manly bearing and affectionate ways endear him to all boys, not only of the class who go to college, but also to the homeless boys in the streets. It is as great a pleasure to Mr. Wendell to referee a sparring match in the Newsboys' Lodging House, as an important game in an inter-scholastic match. He has also the gift of amusing everyone by his singing of topical songs, and his attractive personality makes him a popular guest at

all boys' clubs, boys' lodging-houses, and wherever boys meet together. He is known among them as "the boys' friend," and whenever one of them needs advice or help, his first thought is to see Mr. Wendell. If you pass along Thirty-eighth street near Fifth avenue any morning, you will find a group of street boys hanging about the steps of No. 8. The neighborhood is so familiar with this sight, that it pays but passing attention to it, and the policemen on the beat, knowing well that the boys are waiting there to see Mr. Wendell, will pass on without comment. Boys are admitted by the basement door as soon as Mr. Wendell appears, and the basement room is like the waiting-room of a dispensary, the boys regarding Mr. Wendell in the light of a physician to cure their misfortunes. He listens with patience and affection to their stories, makes up his mind what can be done in each case to help the boy, not with charitable gifts, but with some form of advice or assistance which will enable the boy to make a start in life.

The troubles of these boys are almost beyond description. Some have been driven out of their homes by step-father or step-mother, some have quarrelled with their parents to such a degree that return to them is impossible, some are orphans or have lost all knowledge of their parents, many are boys who have been in institutions and are knocking about in a friendless condition, and others have drifted into New York from other cities. They have found life in New York one of hardship, suffering and temptation. It is almost impossible for a boy without a home or friends to watch him, to keep out of evil resorts. He must sleep in cellars or bribe engineers to let him sleep in boiler rooms. If he earns a little money, he goes to the cheap lodging-house where wicked men resort, and is in continual temptation to pilfer, to snatch purses, to help thieves by crawling in transoms and partly open windows. Boys that come to Mr. Wendell are just on the verge of a criminal life, but the fact that they come to him is a sign that they are making an effort to escape it.

It would be quite impossible for Mr. Wendell to do very much for boys of this character without the assistance of an organized charity. The best part of his work is the individual

interest he takes in the boys and the counsel he gives them, and which they accept because they have faith in him, but without assistance of the Children's Aid Society, or a similar organization, he could do little for these boys. His method is as follows:

It is his custom to give a note to each boy addressed to the superintendent of that boys' lodging-house of the Children's Aid Society, which seems to him best suited to care for the particular boy. The note of introduction will state for instance, that the boy informs him that he has been thrown out of his home, and is living in great hardship for the reason that he can find no employment, and Mr. Wendell requests the superintendent to take the boy in, clean him up, provide him with a clean shirt, and find him a job, charging the board to Mr. Wendell for a day or two until the superintendent can discover whether the boy is sincere in his statement that he desires employment.

This step is taken with the boys who refuse to go to the country, but Mr. Wendell is with us in being a strong believer in the advantages of country life for these boys. For a great many years it has been our habit to send boys who apply at the office of the Children's Aid Society to the Kensico Farm School to be trained in farm work for a brief period, after which they are placed in homes in the country, the little boys as members of farmers' families, and the older boys at wages. Thousands of these boys rescued from a criminal life in the city and placed by the Children's Aid Society in the country, grow up to be honest hard-working young men.

Mr. Wendell is so convinced of the success of this form of prevention of delinquency, that the advice to the boys who call upon him for assistance is invariably that they should go to the country. Not all will go, but many are persuaded by him to visit the Farm School.

#### THE FARM SCHOOL.

Every morning there will be found a group of street boys in the office of the Children's Aid Society, who ask to be sent to the Kensico Farm School. In rags, filthy, heavy-eyed, hoarse-

voiced, with thin cheeks disclosing early suffering, with lowering, shifty expression, indicative of precocious struggles with hard fortunes, they tell their tales of homelessness, friendlessness, and want. They appeal in their misery to every humane and religious man, and yet, what is to be done? Assistance is sometimes the worst thing for the recipient, and to relieve his misfortunes, you must first cure the effects of his misfortunes—the bad habits of body and mind.

Formerly the problem seemed hopeless, but in 1894, Mrs. Joseph M. White established the Boys' Farm School at Ken-sico, twenty-five miles from New York on the Harlem railroad. Cottages, barns, dairy, infirmary, and school-house were given by Mrs. White and others as the venture proved successful, until now the farm accommodates eighty boys, assigned among the different cottages, according to age and skill in farm work. Each cottage has its house-mother to care for the boys. She nurses them when ailing, watches over their clothing and their manners, pets them when good, and scolds them when bad, and very quickly the suspicious, soured lad who had begun to believe society was his enemy, discovers that this is a beautiful world after all, and most surprising of all, he has found a home and friends! When he has made this astonishing discovery, he begins to drop his shifty ways, and to take life as it comes, with more and more confidence that some one cares for him and is keeping an eye on him in the hopes that not only will he be well-behaved at the moment, but will continue so. As he goes out into the world again to a home or a situation which is found for him by his new friends, he not only takes with him their good wishes, but is well assured that these friends, (known to us as the agents of the Children's Aid Society) will keep in touch with him for years to come, that they will quickly know of any wrong-doing on his part, and on the other hand, will come to his aid in any error of judgment he may make, or any misfortune which may threaten him.

#### RESULTS.

As time brings to us experience, we are more and more convinced that it is not the long years of training in an institu-

tion, school or reformatory which counts in the development of character, but that it is the struggle to keep honest amid the temptations of real life which strengthens moral tone. It is the natural home life and the loving interest of foster-parents in coöperation with the careful attention of our agents, that has made our work among orphans and abandoned children so successful. They are quickly placed in family homes, and the social forces around them urge them on to achieve what careers they can.

With little or no endowment, and at a cost during fifty years of but three-fourths of a million dollars, the Children's Aid Society has rescued and placed in family homes, 22,528 orphan or abandoned children, provided situations at wages in the country for 24,864 older boys and girls, and restored 5,201 run-away children to parents. Of those placed in family homes in the west, the vast majority became farmers or farmers' wives. Of the others, we know that one became Governor of a State, and one of a Territory, two have been members of congress, two sheriffs, three district attorneys, three county commissioners, and several have been members of State Legislatures. In the business world, twenty-six became bankers, 451 are in business, thirty-four are lawyers, twenty-two are merchants, seventeen are physicians, eight are postmasters, thirty-nine are railroad men, several being high officials, ten are real estate agents, fifteen are journalists, eighty-five are teachers, several being high school principals, and one a city superintendent of schools, one a civil engineer, over 1,000 entered the army and navy, and twenty-one are clergymen.

No other method of caring for dependent children compares with this, either in results accomplished, or money saved. It is a living witness to the old social order—family life, parental love and influence, the training of each day's common experience.

Nor do we fail in keeping out of the criminal ranks the homeless boys who take shelter in the boys' lodging-houses. Some 4,000 boys during the year seek lodging in these homes temporarily during periods of distress, the average nightly attendance being 400, the average period of lodging being

about a month. The superintendents of these shelters are men and women whose whole thought is for the welfare of those who come within their influence, and when we consider that these homeless ones are the wreck and driftwood of the surging life of the city, the record of achievement is remarkable. This is the class of boys who but for this influence would certainly give way to temptations around them, and would be forced by hardships to commit petty crimes. It is a striking evidence of the usefulness of these homes that of all the boys and young men who have been held by the Court of Special Sessions during the year for crimes and minor offences, but two were inmates of our lodging-houses, all the rest having parents.

I have described the successful work that Mr. Wendell has accomplished in helping forward these boys, and which may truly be called the prevention of delinquency, not only because it is a pleasure to me to express, on behalf of the people of New York, appreciation of Mr. Wendell's work, but also especially to call your attention to the fact that it does not require more than a personal interest of a patient, loving and tactful kind, to accomplish wonderful results among the boys. While Mr. Wendell is connected with various charitable organizations, the best of his work is done in his own house. Let us take this fact to heart. The reason of the enormous number of delinquents in New York is because there is too much machinery and too little individual interest of good people. The trouble begins in the public schools, where there is not enough individual thought brought to bear upon the needs of each boy. If he is troublesome, it is easier to dismiss him. If he is a truant, it is almost impossible for the few truant agents employed in New York to find him, for the reason that among those millions of people it is so easy to be lost. Finally, when he has committed some petty crime and is caught by the police, he is sent to an institution or reformatory, where he is forced to become part of a machine, and through youth and young manhood he is convinced that society is his enemy. Is it any wonder under this system that we are not making head against delinquency in New York city? The cure of all

these evils is in the methods adopted by Mr. Wendell. If there were hundreds of men in New York who would take interest in the growing boys around them, delinquency could easily be prevented.

#### DISCUSSION ON THE PREVENTION OF DELINQUENCY.

. Chairman BRIGGS.—It has been the prevailing opinion of the public generally that the college professor is long on theory and short on practice, but that is not universally true by any means, and the gentleman who is to open the discussion on Mr. Brace's paper is a college professor who is long on practical work. I have great pleasure, therefore in introducing to you Prof. J. H. Hamilton, Professor of Sociology in the Syracuse University.

Prof. HAMILTON.—I wish, ladies and gentlemen, it were in my power to make good what our Chairman has said in what I shall give you, in regard to being long on practice, for I hesitate very much to depart from the excellent example of my predecessor in giving hard facts and not thoughts adduced from practical experience. But in treating this subject I must admit that I feel compelled to treat it somewhat academically and somewhat theoretically.

I have been forced to this conclusion in applying my thoughts to the title of the subject which we are to discuss to-night, namely, the prevention of juvenile delinquency. I observe that the paper of the evening had in it little to say about the prevention of juvenile delinquency, but considerable to say about the treatment of the juvenile delinquent and courts for juvenile delinquents. I doubt very much, indeed I do not believe it is possible to prevent the juvenile from becoming a delinquent. for it is my honest conviction that he is born delinquent. That is to say, that violation of what we call laws of property, laws with regard to public order, laws with regard to the protection of the person, that the violation of such laws is an inseparable incident in these early discharges of nervous force, of nervous energy, on the part of childhood. So I submit the predisposition to delinquency is universal among children. Indeed, I might go so far as to say that the actual commission of

crime, within the lines which I have stated—I think I will say that, as far as the male sex is concerned—is universal.

Now it is the function of culture to rescue children from this condition. It is the function of culture to direct the discharges of nervous energy into channels which we call lawful and to prevent and cut off those discharges of nervous energy which we call unlawful. Now culture—institutional culture is a narrow term—sometimes operates in two ways. Either directly through schools, and I very heartily indorse what has been said in regard to our public school system, particularly the phases of it which have immediate application to this condition—I say either directly through schools operating directly upon the children, or indirectly as it percolates through the cultured parent, the parent in turn becoming the instrument, and the cultured friend.

Now I will submit one thought here, which is perhaps in some conflict with the patriotic sentiment just expressed by Father Hendrick, and that is the evidence of predisposition to delinquency seems to me to be more abundant among American children than it is among the children of the old world. At least I am very firm in that conviction myself as the result of considerable observation, particularly in those countries where monarchy still obtains or where the traditions of monarchy are still an active force among the people. Now it has become rather a pet theory of mine that a certain amount of restlessness on the part of children is an incident of democracy. With all its advantages we have to count some disadvantages. With all the gain we have to count a little of cost. That is to say, that the adult, the father, living under the principles of democracy must and is, by the inspiration of the things around him, in some measure incapacitated to perform the functions of monarch himself within the realm of his own family.

Now that leads me to the further observation that there are two ways of fixing law-abiding habits. There is the forceful way and there is the understanding way, or the educational way. I rather take exception to the thought of Judge Murphy, that the children out under sentence were cured under the latter, the understanding way. While he says it is the under-

standing by the child of what he did that forms the measure of success, I submit it is the fear of the force lodged in the court, in the law, which the child has come to understand in a very concrete way for the first time in his life. I am also of the conviction that the forceful way is perhaps the chief way and must always be the principal method of fixing law-abiding habits in the lives of children. But there is the other way, through understanding, which I think we must look to more and more to remedy the defects of our American monarchs within our American democracy to which I referred a moment ago. That is to say, I look with favor upon any institution which will train the thought of the child, educate that child up to a sense of what law means, just what is behind it. What does Judge Murphy's probationary child think of the law and the sentence which Judge Murphy will pronounce if the child does not obey the injunction of the court?

Now then I say the thought which I wish to develop here is, that the child should be brought to understand what that law is and what are the reasons behind that law. So that any device, any agency which will take hold of the thought of the child in that way I should say would be an invaluable supplement to the discipline of the parent without regard to his condition, in so far as it is applicable to the condition of childhood, even though it may be somewhat rude.

I know of one instance in our city of Syracuse, where the children of a family organized themselves into a government and adopted certain rules of conduct, taking a good many suggestions from the mother and father, who became interested in the project themselves, as to what they ought to do and what they ought not to do.

I should have regretted very much leaving out one further thought in this matter of self-government. I was going to speak of the George Junior Republic, where the government includes property as well as personalty and so on, where there is an all around conception of the law and what law is. I was going to speak of this device as within the understanding of the child. I submit that the adult, the criminal adult, scarcely realizes the government of which he forms a part.

There are other settlements also, but this is the foremost organization. There is one characteristic of the George Junior Republic which lies rather outside of institutional treatment, and that is the development of the idea of property. I submit historically it is the development of private property which is the genesis of the development of law. Chaos reigned when there was no private property. Then came the question of personal rights. It was after property began to accumulate, that laws came into existence as to the property belonging to a man and his rights to it. It was but a step from that to man's right to immunity from physical pain inflicted by others, and so a system arose by which disputes were settled in a sensible way, and a man could retain what he had earned. This carries us to the savings bank. My point is if children, and especially children in these institutions, are given an opportunity to work and are encouraged to save, that when their savings have been crystalized into a savings bank account they have taken a very long step in the way of understanding what law is, or at any rate an all around conception of law. And I think that is one of the very best preventives in the development of the criminal or delinquent child into the criminal adult.

Rev. ARTHUR LAWRENCE, Stockbridge, Mass.— May I present a concrete example of some of the utterances made to-night? How many people know that within an hour's ride of Albany, just this side of the Massachusetts line, there is an institution or school established on very much the principle which was described here? I refer to the Berkshire Industrial Farm, which was established some fifteen years ago by Mr. Burnham, of New York. He took possession of an old Shaker settlement there, a very fitting spot it is, near Queechy Lake. Those belonging to my generation will remember how a generation ago their tears were shed over the sufferings of the missing Freda, or whatever her name was, of Queechy Lake. The school is directly fronting upon the lake, part is in Massachusetts and part in New York State. There are now about seventy-five boys there taken out of the slums of New York and certain localities all about, not criminals exactly

themselves but right in the criminal stage, those who are just wavering on the line, those who need just a touch one way or the other to make them develop into criminals or good citizens.

Now when we speak of cities, we think of the luxuries, we think of the advantages for education, and churches and all that, but when we remember what city life means to those who are in the slums, when we remember how impossible it is for boys under those conditions to rise above them, I think we realize the inestimable benefit and blessing it is to have these boys taken out from these surroundings and brought into this lovely country life.

Now that principle of self-government, or rather the principle of the recognition of the value of property, that point is strongly emphasized in that settlement. They have a system by which every boy is entitled for good conduct to earn a certain amount. For misbehavior he is fined, for good behavior he is allowed to accumulate. Instantly there is a development of this boy's sense of the value of property of which the last speaker has just spoken. They are surrounded with constant care and watchfulness, but they are also allowed to participate in the pleasures and uplifting of country life. They are taught the benefit of miscellaneous work. They work on the farm, take care of the cattle, make shoes. The aim is to give them work with sufficient recreation combined with it. You would be surprised in looking over these boys to notice their intelligence and attractiveness. I was visiting the school once, and I am familiar with our large schools like St. Paul and Groton, and these boys were a better looking set than the Groton boys. When you once ask a question you could go back months afterwards and find they have a lively recollection about what has already been said. Now, as I have said, this institution is within an hour's ride of Albany, and I hope those to whom the institution is not familiar may be interested in knowing such an institution exists, and I should be glad to bespeak for them an interest in it.

The fourth session of the Conference was adjourned by the President at 10.15 p. m.

## FIFTH SESSION.

*Thursday morning, November 20, 1902, Senate Chamber.*

The Conference was called to order at 10.30 a. m. by President Stewart, who invited to the chair Mr. Lafayette L. Long, Superintendent of the Poor of Erie county, Buffalo, Chairman of the Committee on Institutional Care of Destitute Adults, who presided throughout the session.

## REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON INSTITUTIONAL CARE OF DESTITUTE ADULTS.

This subject, viewed from the historical standpoint, takes on a constantly changing view. A retrospective panorama passes before us, in which we see the changes since New York charities entered their present era. This will be sufficient for the purposes of this committee's report.

The origin and growth of the system of charities now in operation presents an interesting branch of this subject.

In the administration of charities the town overseer of the poor was the first officer created by law, and it is interesting to note the gradual evolution of a central county authority and a complete system of superintendence of charities, starting with the officer elected at town meeting in the beginning of the century just closed.

As early as 1817 the Legislature amended the statutes relating to the poor, which up to that time knew only overseers of the poor, and made provision for the removal of non-resident poor persons to homes and residences elsewhere, and attached a penalty to unlawful removal.

In 1820 the Legislature enacted the statute enabling the county of Rensselaer to erect and maintain a house of industry, or almshouse, as now called, and by provision of the last section gave authority to the board of supervisors of any county, upon a two-thirds vote, to extend the system to such county. This act contained a provision for the appointment of five superintendents of the house of industry; they were, in fact, trustees, but by corruption of terms and subsequent legislation the number became reduced to three superintendents, and

finally the boards of supervisors were authorized to reduce to one in number. The office was made elective in some counties, and thus originated the office of superintendent of the poor.

After the act of 1820 various acts were passed, adapting the almshouse system to the various counties of the State, and in 1824 the General Act was passed establishing county almshouses, and in 1826 the act of 1824 was amended, giving the superintendent of the poor power to bind out children in conformity with the provisions of the act of 1801 concerning apprentices, and the indenture was required to be filed with the county clerk.

In 1832 the power of appointment of superintendents of the poor was vested in the boards of supervisors and Judge of Common Pleas, and provision was made at the same session for printing the Poor Laws in pamphlet form.

During the next ten years many local acts were passed for different counties, and this may be taken as the formative period of the almshouse system of relief.

By the act of 1847 the office of county superintendent of the poor was made elective and the board of supervisors given power to reduce the number from three to one. The duties of the superintendent of the poor were defined by the act of 1842 as amended by the act of 1849. From 1847 to 1867 various general acts were passed, but the period from 1867 to the present time covers practically all the advance that has been made in the administration of charity and the management and relief of the indigent poor, the idiots, weak-minded, insane, and in the methods of outdoor or temporary relief.

It is instructive to contrast the provisions of the act of 1820, chapter 51, with the present conditions.

It provides that "The board of superintendents shall have exclusive charge, management, direction and superintendence of said house of industry (poorhouse) and shall and may make, ordain and establish rules, regulations and by-laws for the well-ordering of the same, and the employment and relief, management and government of the persons placed therein, and the correction of the refractory, disobedient and disorderly by solitary confinement therein, and feeding them on bread and water

only as they shall deem expedient." And "It shall be lawful to contract with some suitable person for the support of those persons who are placed in said house of industry, who shall be authorized to employ the persons so committed to his charge."

The same act permitted justices of the peace to commit disorderly persons to such house of industry; also any child under the age of fifteen years found begging in the streets.

We can imagine such house of industry peopled by drunken, disorderly, vicious and lewd persons, male and female, children of tender years, idiots, the deaf and dumb, the blind and the insane, and we do not wonder that charitably disposed persons like the Hon. William P. Letchworth and others have felt constrained to give up a lifetime to the reformation of such evils.

Let the past have for us only lessons of warning. Permanent pauperism is as old as the human race itself; Scripture speaks of the poor and indigent; history sheds light upon their condition and treatment ages before Scripture was written. A new era begins with special law and noble advance, with the statutory provision for permanent departments for the administration of relief through these enactments. Indiscriminate almsgiving was relegated to the past, and the new idea underlying modern methods of care of the degenerate and defective, a recognition of the difference in causation, was enthroned, and man became the safe keeper of his brother man.

The improvement in the provision for our public wards is coördinate with the improved standards of living in the community. In the past, as now, and as must always be, the standard of the house of permanent relief should be gauged by the standard of daily life among the people from whom are drawn the funds to maintain public charity.

As administration begins with the reception of inmates this report calls first for a word upon the subject of commitments:

WHO SHALL BE COMMITTED; TO WHAT INSTITUTION; AND BY WHOM?

In some counties it has been found of great benefit to concentrate the committing power in one head, or department, and it works so well that we believe the same rule of a single com-

mitting officer should prevail everywhere, except as to the town poor, who remain a town charge and for whose commitment the overseer is responsible.

Thorough investigation should be made in every case to exclude improper applicants for charity, and, to determine the physical and mental status of the candidate for commitment, a medical examination should be made.

Thereupon the place of commitment can be properly determined upon the merits, bearing in mind the cardinal rule that only adults should be committed to the almshouse, and that these should not be able-bodied, but decrepit, or in some manner, by infirmity or otherwise, rendered incapable of that continued exertion essential to the gaining of a livelihood. Permanent commitments to the almshouse contemplate none who are able-bodied; for such the workhouse is the proper place.

A complete record of the primary investigation and examination should be transmitted to the institution for its information and as a foundation for the future records which may be necessary.

State and alien poor persons may, under the provisions of the law for the temporary care, be sent to the almshouse, yet only for such lodgment pending final disposition and transportation to residence or friends elsewhere.

It is to be noted that the past thirty years have seen the growth and development of the modern State hospital for the insane; idiots, blind and epileptics have been provided for by the establishment of State asylums, and the care and burden thereof taken from the local authorities, subject to recoupment. But it is to be further noted that adequate provision has not, however, been made for feeble-minded children, epileptics and unteachable idiots. These and the insane must be passed by in the consideration of the institutional care of adults. They all pass under review of committing officers.

Upon the proper institutional classification of the adult pauper and indigent population applying for relief much depends, as there are calls for commitment to hospitals for the insane, relief for the blind and epileptic, admission to cus-

todial and idiot asylums and workhouses, as well as to the county almshouse. Some cases, too, by reason of special circumstances, must be sent to the old folks' home, or the county hospital, or to some private hospital. All this calls for wise discrimination, and it is therein that the county superintendent, or committing officer wielding the power of commitment, shows his ability and fitness. The county superintendent, then, is the central point from whom radiates the discussion of the branches of the topic in charge of your committee. These divisions of the general topic are diverse. They relate to the hospitals for the insane, asylums for the blind and for deaf-mutes, provision for the weak-minded and idiots, epileptic colonies, old folks' and soldiers' homes, places of detention for inebriates, county and city hospitals for the sick, and the almshouse. Your committee suggests that these matters be separately considered as subjects from time to time, with especial reference to the following heads: Discipline, dietary, clothing, sanitary regulations, medical attendance, moral surroundings, living and dormitory arrangements, character and general arrangement of buildings, need for commodious grounds, limitation of expense, employment, amusements and social atmosphere, discharges and recommitments, supervising power of local boards, appointive or elective superintendents and keepers, grouping by classification in almshouses and homes.

It is not within the scope of this committee's work to undertake the discussion in this report of any of these topics, but rather to note the matters which are deemed most important for present discussion, thus keeping before this Conference the main topic, leaving to the future the suggestions outlined. We note that there is progress made from conference to conference.

The care and treatment of the insane as to methods, management and results of State care are in acute public discussion to-day; and some of the advocates and opponents of the present system are eager to discuss State care in all its features. Doubts and misgivings exist in some minds, and students of sociology as well as philanthropists who have labored in this field for years are not satisfied with present conditions. The public is waiting for the final verdict when trial and ex-

perience shall have demonstrated what is best and what is faulty in the centralized control of this great group of charities.

Under the head of progress for the past year interest in the subject of public charities and institutional management is awakened, which gives promise of early fruit.

We note the following changes worthy of notice in the care of destitute adults in the institutions under the Department of Public Charities of Greater New York during the year ending November 1, 1902:

1. By the provisions of the revised charter the Borough Departments of Public Charities, including the four counties of New York, Kings, Queens and Richmond have been centralized in a single department in charge of one Commissioner and two deputy commissioners. On June 1st the bookkeeping, auditing of bills, and preparation and execution of contracts, were centralized at the main office of the department under the direction of the Commissioner, having been formerly carried on at three different offices in the boroughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn and Richmond. This centralization has made possible a better classification of the inmates in the three almshouses in the department. All able-bodied male epileptics from the Kings County Hospital and the hospitals on Blackwell's Island and about fifty of the more able-bodied paupers from the Blackwell's Island Almshouse have been transferred to the Richmond County Poor Farm, consisting of 114 acres, near New Dorp, S. I.

To quote from the second annual report of the Department of Public Charities: "This step has four advantages — outdoor life and occupation for the epileptics, providing a 'work test' for the able-bodied paupers (many of whom took their discharge rather than go to the farm to work), relief of the overcrowding on Blackwell's Island, and the production of vegetables on the Richmond County Poor Farm for use there and on Blackwell's Island.

Another important change was made on March 3d, when the arrangement for sending State poor persons from the office of the department at the foot of East Twenty-sixth street to Flatbush, Brooklyn, was discontinued, and instructions were given

to send them instead to the almshouse on Blackwell's Island. This arrangement is more economical and has relieved the overcrowding at the Flatbush Almshouse.

At the almshouse on Blackwell's Island, formerly the New York County Almshouse, several important improvements have been effected since January 1st. The most important of these, perhaps, is the improvement in the dietary of the institution. Where the breakfast had consisted solely of bread and coffee, and the supper of bread and tea, throughout the year, there is now provided in addition, for the breakfast and supper, one-half ounce of butter daily for each inmate, one ounce of syrup, four ounces of oatmeal or rice once a week, and two ounces of prunes or dried apples once a week. The dinner, which is more substantial, remains as before except that the quantity has been increased.

The deputy commissioner arranged, during the summer, a series of band concerts by the New York Protectory band on alternate Saturday afternoons. These concerts were greatly enjoyed by the inmates, who gave many outward signs of their delight.

The nursing service in the Almshouse Hospital has been improved by the appointment of a supervising nurse, and will be still further bettered, it is hoped, by the construction of a Nurses' Home now being provided. All the tuberculosis cases in the hospital have been transferred to the new infirmary for consumptives recently opened as a division of the Metropolitan Hospital.

Another change must be mentioned here. The Governor has appointed a Fiscal Supervisor, who has control of the purchase of supplies for the State institutions. The purpose of this appointment is to reduce the cost of supplies, and it must be conceded that this purchasing agent, with the credit of the State and the vastness of his purchases, should certainly be able to reduce the cost.

Many counties have in contemplation the improvement of their buildings, and desire assistance in securing a model group of county buildings, hospitals and asylums, and for their in-

terior equipment and arrangements desire the best. These can act in coöperation with the State Board of Charities, and the result of such action will be available for the other counties hereafter proposing improvements.

Legislation is demanded for sufficient appropriations to furnish adequate provision for the complete separation of the epileptics, the weak-minded and demented from the almshouse population. An evil condition exists in this respect in many counties of the State, giving rise to this demand.

To illustrate, it is estimated that there are 2,500 epileptic cases in the institutions of the State and counties, and at home, yet Craig Colony is full with less than one-third this number. The Syracuse Institution is full to crowding with the feeble-minded children. The State Custodial Asylums at Rome and Newark are unequal to the demands made upon them, and we are compelled to fall back upon the orphan asylums and almshouses or refuse relief.

Hardly a day passes in the experience of the chairman of this committee that an application is not made, renewed or put in waiting, or commitment made to the Almshouse Hospital in despair of being able to increase his county's quota in these homes for feeble-minded and epileptics. Not that liberal treatment has not been accorded, but simply that present provision is entirely inadequate. This is but a typical experience of all other superintendents of the poor in the State, and this deplorable condition justifies the language of your committee that legislation is demanded on this subject.

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A paper on "Labor Problems in Institutions" was then read by Mr. Truman L. Stone, Steward Craig Colony, Sonyea.

### LABOR PROBLEMS IN INSTITUTIONS.

I cannot express my appreciation of the high privilege and honor conferred by inviting me to appear before you at this the third New York State Conference of Charities and Corrections. When invited by Mr. Long, the Chairman of your Committee on "Institutional Care of Destitute Adults," to prepare a paper for this meeting, being conscious of my inability to present anything worthy of the attention of the members of this Conference, I was prompted to decline; but Mr. Long would not take "No" for an answer. In a few days I received a letter from him saying, "Your subject, 'Labor Problems in Institutions,' will be printed in the program."

As steward of a large charitable institution it has been my duty to look after employment of patients, detail in business, finance, and, so far as I have been able to do so, prevent the needless expenditure of money, rather than pay attention to the treatment of patients; although, as a layman, I have devoted some attention to the treatment of the unfortunate in public charitable institutions, both State and county. The notion that the expense of maintaining charitable institutions is to be alone considered, is wrong, as the cost of the maintenance of an institution is a matter of minor importance with the average taxpayer, when compared with kind, humane treatment. I think the price of a meal of victuals in the charitable institutions of this State will average about five cents for the provisions. Is there a demand on the part of the taxpayer to make it cheaper? I speak of this to show later on that there are, and must necessarily be, benefits accruing by utilizing the unskilled labor in public charitable institutions.

Human labor may be divided into two kinds—mental and physical—and it is undoubtedly correct to concede that without one there could hardly be the other. It is only among the most industrious races, where physical labor is the most varied, that we find the greatest inventive genius and the largest, broadest development of intellect. Wherever you find a civilized race or class that is most severely tasked by the necessity for arduous physical effort to sustain life, you will find the lowest in the order of mental accomplishment. But these facts do not disturb the first proposition, since the labor of the lower or poor classes extends only in one direction—the protection and perpetuation of life.

There is no condition of existence of man unaccompanied by labor, both physical and mental; the latter devoted simply to the direction of the former, and both directed toward the sustenance and luxuries of life. This brings us back to the beginning, that mental labor must precede physical labor; but mental labor cannot increase and expand without a corresponding increase and expansion in physical labor. That is, one must have a mental condition of hunger and a mental inquiry as to the means for allaying it before making the physical effort to procure such means.

It should be borne in mind that in considering one kind of labor we are including the other, so intimate are the relations between them. The history of the human race is a record of the wants of man and his labor in supplying them. This labor is divided and subdivided. One person becomes an architect, another a carpenter, a third becomes a stone-cutter, and a fourth a messenger, who cannot originate but is useful to carry the designs of the architect to the skilled workman.

The exercise of skilled labor leads to the accumulation of wealth.

The non-exercise of unskilled labor leads to the accumulation of paupers.

This would be true in all cases if physical and mental conditions were normal in all persons; but these conditions are not the same. Hence the public and private charitable institutions for those mentally and physically deformed.

Without going into detail we will take it for granted that human nature is the same whether the person is a prince or a pauper, and whether the cause of the person being dependent is insanity, idiocy, epilepsy, or any one of the many causes for dependency.

In any case the man that falls from independence to dependence invariably loses the desire for higher things, and when this desire is lost, no matter what the cause (if it cannot be removed), the individual has become mentally unbalanced, and on account of his mental condition it becomes necessary for some one to work for him mentally while he works physically. This cannot be done unless he is willing to have it done; and he will not be willing, on account of the human nature in him, unless the discipline of the institution requires it of him. It is necessary, then, first, to have discipline; second, that the person who maintains this discipline should have mental capacity sufficient for himself and for the dependent person that is compelled to work to the extent of his physical ability; and not only have the mental capacity, but *he should be trained along the line of teaching others how to work and help themselves.*

It requires men and women of character, brains, patience and great forbearance to become good disciplinarians or attendants in a charitable institution, for there is nothing in the world one-half so provoking as the average patient in an institution. The attendant that looks upon the mentally diseased with less sympathy than upon one physically weak has no conception of his duty, for the attendant's duty is to furnish brains for the former.

The success of any institution that cares for the dependent classes in solving the labor problem depends largely on maintaining intelligent, industrious and faithful attendants, who are interested in their work and proud of making a success of it. The need of persons systematically trained to discharge the duties of labor attendants or labor instructors is one of the chief drawbacks in solving the labor problem in charitable institutions.

The hospital trained nurse is indispensable in the care of the sick in the hospital or sick room, but has no other value. A

charitable institution must dispense with the necessity of employing such help for general institutional care.

There should be training schools opened in every charitable institution for educating industrial instructors for general institutional work and care of patients. A certificate issued to a graduate of a school of this kind should be issued only when the person has shown that he or she is mentally, physically, morally and practically entitled to it. There should be no time limit of slipshod application for two or three years, and then grant a certificate of so-called "trained nurse," or, in this case, "trained industrial instructor." The certificate of graduation from a school of this kind should be sure evidence of competency.

I admit that in view of the large number to be employed, and the peculiarity of the service, the question of how to weed out the incompetent and procure the competent is important.

The instructor should not act as a taskmaster, but as a companion and teacher, helping the patient at times and encouraging him always; and when the attendant reports that the patient is not good for anything—cannot work, does not know how to work, etc.—he is simply telling you that he or she is a failure as an attendant.

In many cases there should be some substantial remuneration of patients' labor, either in money, clothes, or some position of importance in the industry in which he may be engaged. There should be reward of merit. At the present time the lack of it and of competent instruction of patients stands in the way of the complete industrial system in charitable institutions.

After having received a certain amount of instruction the patient may be given charge of some of the work in the institution. Even though he may have little mental capacity, by this method he will become interested and take more pride in the exhibition of his work than any employe will. My experience has been that a patient that has specific work in the institution, and becomes interested in his work, can be relied upon as often as the average employe to perform the same without slighting or neglecting it.

Promotion is one of the best means of discipline and encouragement, and works the same in an institution as it does in private business. When the patient does well, promote him. The fear of being returned to more degrading work, and the prospect of being promoted still higher, is an inducement for him to try and make a success of his work.

There is a class in all charitable institutions and communities that cares little or nothing for promotion, reward, compensation or anything else; they are vicious and criminally inclined. They not only stay in idleness themselves but interfere with others that work. This class should be made to work. In the management of patients of this kind it is not desirable to have a code of hard and fast rules, for the temperament of the average institution patient leads him to desire that which is forbidden. He is more likely to do things if requested than if commanded.

As a means of discipline, let me say, first of all, that corporal punishment should be absolutely forbidden in a charitable institution. Because a person has done wrong he should not be wronged in turn, so that he will fear to do wrong lest he be punished again, as results obtained through fear are not the kind desired. One of the most effective ways to maintain discipline is to provide occupation. A patient busy and interested in his work needs no discipline. A patient who knows enough to do the task set for him will be more likely to want to do it if he sees all the others busy than he will if a majority of his fellow-patients are idle.

It is now generally acknowledged by physicians that agricultural pursuits constitute one of the most valuable agents in the treatment of mental diseases, and therefore this employment is to be recommended for this class of dependents. There is no branch of agricultural work in which patients are not useful. There is very little danger of accident by their use of agricultural implements, and very little skill is required for the patient to be fairly proficient in a great many kinds of farm work.

There are certain patients whose condition, either from old age, infirmity, or a tendency to abscond, precludes the possibility of their being employed in agricultural pursuits; but these form a small proportion of the population in institutions that are physically able to work.

We have epileptic patients at the Craig Colony that have become experts in a great many branches of industry. Patients that, on account of their disease, are mentally weak, have been taught to do work that few persons could do without training. We have twenty-five patients that go to the brickyard every day. No one of them knows everything about making brick. One knows how to take the brick out of the molds without spoiling a single brick, which is an art; another knows how to put them in the racks; another, how to set them in the kiln, and so on through the whole process of making brick. Each one may be called an expert at his particular trade.

We have about twenty-five patients that work on the farm, and the same number or more that work in the garden. These men and boys have been taught how to hoe corn and potatoes, build fence, pitch hay, milk cows, and do a great many other things on the farm and in the garden that they knew nothing about until they came to the Colony and received instruction in the industry there.

We have in the shops patients that have shown skill in many branches of the trades that are taught there.

There were employed the last year in the tailoring department five patients for eight months and seven for four months. The value of their labor, as shown by my report to Dr. Sprattling, the Medical Superintendent, for the year ending September 30, 1902, after deducting the salary of the foreman or instructor, and the cost of material, was \$1,118.99.

All the work on the farm, in the garden and shops at the Colony is done by patients, with the exception of the foreman and teamsters. We want to do more work. We want more instructors, and expect to have them. Most of the inmates at the Colony are employed and enjoy their daily labors, and oftentimes, when leaving, thank the officers for the opportunity

afforded them to fill in their time, which under other circumstances would doubtless hang heavy on their hands.

I have cited a few of these incidents at the Colony that I am familiar with, to show that it pays to have competent industrial instructors in charitable institutions.

The labor problem in institutions will not be solved until more attention is given to teaching the mentally defective how to do useful things. It does not matter if a girl does not know how many islands there are in the Mediterranean sea, but it is of importance that she should know how to make her bed, sweep her room properly, and attend to her own personal wants.

It should not be entirely with the idea of financial gain that patients are employed, but the aim should also be to promote recovery and to prevent the patients from sinking into a despondent, demented condition.

There is, however, a financial gain in the employment of patients, as shown by the men and women employed in the industrial pursuits at the Craig Colony. The charitable institution that has a staff of trained industrial instructors for attendants will have more and better work done every year, and there will be a continuous addition to the ranks of useful and industrial patients. The yields of the farm and garden will be greater; the proceeds of the industrial departments increased; the live stock will be in better condition; the lawns and grounds better kept, with additional shrubs, plants and flowers. The patients will be happier, more contented with their isolated life, and greatly improved, both mentally and physically.

Charity ceases to be charity when it supports and fosters idleness. It is not the whole truth to say that charity is an unproductive expenditure, as it is a productive expenditure when a charitable institution has assisted the mental and physical ability of a patient so that by his labor he has reduced the cost of his maintenance to a minimum, and increased his mental and physical ability to a maximum.

## DISCUSSION ON "LABOR PROBLEMS IN INSTITUTIONS."

The discussion was opened by Mr. Cyrus C. Lathrop, Inspector State Board of Charities, Albany:

Mr. LATHROP.—In opening the discussion upon Mr. Stone's paper I would say I have not touched upon the question of the value of labor to the inmate for two reasons. One is that it is not directly to the point, and the other that the value to the inmate from the viewpoints of discipline and health is almost axiomatic.

In the discussion of the problem of labor in public institutions it must be borne in mind that the chief point upon which there is difference of opinion is how to make profitable use of the labor available. All are agreed that so far as employment is necessary to the physical and mental well-being of the inmates, they must be employed. This disposes at once of any extended reference to employment at household tasks or the simpler forms of work which are adopted for prudential reasons to assist in the maintenance of health or discipline, but after these things are accomplished, what shall we do with the surplusage of labor which remains in the institution; in other words, how shall we make this surplus a source of income to assist the public in defraying the expense of maintenance?

When one considers the opportunities which the writer of the paper under discussion has had to observe methods for the employment of this surplus labor, the views he advances will be received with respect, although all his premises and some of his conclusions may not meet with acceptance.

The paper deals with the problem from a purely local standpoint, while what is needed is the enunciation of broad principles applicable to all institutions and all localities.

We are searching for these principles, and add Mr. Stone's experience to the sum total of available information.

In any discussion of this problem, however, we may fairly take it for granted that the things which he insists upon most strongly as necessary are already established in institutions. That institution is poorly managed which does not make provision for the daily employment, in the ordinary household

duties, of inmates capable of labor, and also in such other employment as may be essential to their health, either of mind or body, so we may dismiss this part of his discussion and take up the broader question as to what form of labor is most useful in assisting the public to bear the burden imposed upon it by the care of the inmates of charitable institutions?

Herein is presented a difficulty. It cannot be said that any one form of employment will solve the problem. The prisons have endeavored to make use of the large surplusage of labor at their disposal, and the matter has even been made political in its bearings and disposition, and yet the problem is not solved even in them. The prisons have an advantage over other institutions in that all available labor is usually of the adult and able-bodied type, so that it is usual to have shops in which manufactures of various kinds may be carried on, and it is possible also to make use of this labor outside of the particular prison in the making of roads.

There is less difficulty in the labor question so far as it concerns our treatment of the delinquent class than there is when we take it up in connection with the defective class, for here we labor sometimes with mental inability and sometimes with physical inability. Where there are physical defects they may not be so complete as to prevent profitable labor. For example, a man in an almshouse may have lost both legs yet his trunk and arms be those of an athlete. Is it not possible to employ the power remaining to this man and make him profitable to the public in some way so as to compensate for the cost of his maintenance? Others are mentally defective, yet possess full physical power. How shall this physical power be made useful? Here the problem is one of direction and control. Then, in what channel shall this labor be directed? How shall it be controlled so that the lack of intelligence shall not endanger the productive power? Our public charitable institutions are called upon to deal with these two phases of the inmate labor problem, and not only is this true in the institutions which are supported directly by the State, but in those supported by municipalities and counties. These phases of the problem must be faced.

In a broad way it may be asserted that labor can be made profitable when it is properly directed. Mr. Stone has very properly emphasized the need of trained industrial instructors, whose training shall insure to the institution those who, through the culture of a broad education, shall be versatile and adaptable, but more than these subordinates is it necessary that there shall be competent executives. The quality of the subordinate is to be measured by the ability of the directing head, and in the employment of labor more depends upon the choice of the avenues in which labor is to be employed than upon its mere direction during employment. The choice of these avenues is the special function of the executive. The direction or instruction and control of the laborer is the function of the subordinate, but when both of these, superior and subordinate, represent a high type of ability, it may be safely asserted that the labor problem will be solved in any institution.

Location has much to do with the kind of employment. In Craig Colony the principal employment seems to be agriculture, and many more of the male inmates could be so employed, or in developing the canning industry, the practicability of which has already been demonstrated. In the almshouse at Flatbush agriculture is impossible, for there is no land available. Some other form of employment, however, is possible which will do for the Flatbush almshouse and like institutions what agriculture is doing for Craig Colony. In the Custodial Asylum at Rome agriculture also is a successful method of employing a mentally defective type of labor. On Randall's Island a similar mentally defective type of laborer has been employed in light manufacture, producing tin ware, basket ware, rugs, tailoring, sewing and chair caning in sufficient quantities to demonstrate its economic value. Therefore the proper solution of the labor question is one which calls for capable officials to adjust locality, opportunity and equipment, and reach the desired goal of labor in charitable institutions, which shall result in the happiness and development of the dependent, and the reduction of the cost of his maintenance.

Mr. JAMES WOOD.—We have had two very interesting papers upon the subject of the labor problem in State institutions

as it bears upon the employment of the inmates, giving occupation to them and producing a return to the State and in some measure meeting the expense of the State in the care of the inmates.

There is another aspect of this question to which reference has not been made, and that is the labor question in reformatory institutions. There are in these institutions conditions that do not exist in those that are not distinctly of a reformatory character. The inmates must be cared for while they are in the institution and they must be trained in order that they may be self-supporting and be able to obtain an honest livelihood when they leave the institution, either when they may be paroled or at the expiration of their term of commitment. One of the greatest responsibilities devolving upon those who have the management of these institutions is the training and preparation of these inmates for respectable self-support when they go out into communities. This cannot be done without training in labor of some sort. But in this they are seriously handicapped because of the fact that the product of the labor in these institutions cannot be disposed of in the open market in the State. Thereby the inmate is deprived of an incentive which is a very potent influence in educational work. If by any means the product of the labor of the inmates could be disposed of so that the inmate himself or herself, at the expiration of the term, could have some share of that which they have produced by their labor, there would be a stimulus to effort which is an absolute necessity for the exercise of the best ability of the person being trained. Without some stimulus of this sort, no man or woman ever does his or her best. It is one of the laws universal, in institutions and out of institutions, that improvement comes only when we do our best. We cannot have the improvement we desire these shall attain unless this incentive be given to them, so that they may look forward to the fruit of their labor when they shall leave the institution. It is nothing more than simple justice to them that they shall have this benefit when they go out. If they leave the institution penniless they

may suffer greatly before they find employment. It may be that very fact will lead them into paths of crime from which we have endeavored to rescue them. If by any means the law of the State applying to the disposition of the products of the labor in institutions could be so amended that reformatory institutions should have some means, or some little loophole by which the present condition should not apply to them, it would be a very great benefit to this labor question in the institutions of the State. I cannot imagine that the influence that has brought about the legislation preventing the sale of the products of labor in institutions in the open market would object to this modification of the law, so that we might give employment, with all the benefit attending that employment, to the inmates.

Prof. F. H. BRIGGS, Rochester.—It seems to me that Mr. Lathrop in his discussion of Steward Stone's paper made one or two strong points, which are these: That whether the inmates are properly employed in institutions or not depends almost entirely upon the ability of their boards of managers and executives. If there is a disposition and desire to give them employment, they have the power to give it. I cannot agree with the preceding speaker that the sale of the products of inmates of reformatory institutions is a desirable end. If these products are to be sold, then very soon the turning of the proceeds of such sale toward the support of the inmates still in the institution will be the thing that is to be expected, and when that happens, then the emphasis will be placed on not how much we can teach these inmates while they are with us, but how much we can get out of them. Children who take manual training in the public schools do not need the incentive of the sale of the thing which they make in order to lead them to do their best in its production. I believe it is not necessary in a reformatory institution. I think if trade schools are established in all these institutions so that all the inmates can be kept profitably busy, they will be interested in the work because they like to do it, and it seems to me the labor problem in all these institutions can be very easily and simply solved by the establishment of trade schools where they do

not now exist. With their beautiful farm at Sonyea—over eighteen hundred acres—it seems to me that the labor problem there almost solves itself. I understood the steward to say that only twenty-five were employed up there in farm work. I would like to ask if I am correct in that understanding?

Mr. STONE.—We have twenty-five detailed regularly to go to the farm every morning. There are probably thirty to forty on that detail. There are a great many of these patients who have seizures at different times and have to lay off for two or three days, so it takes thirty to forty men to fill the twenty-five places.

Prof. BRIGGS.—As I understand, the reason why more are not employed is because their physical condition does not permit of their employment?

Mr. STONE.—That is the idea. I don't know as I gave you the others.

Prof. BRIGGS.—You accounted in your paper for the employment of—somewhere about 200 inmates out of 800 or more that are in the Colony. Now as I understand the matter, the reason the others are not employed is because their infirmities prevent their employment.

Mr. STONE.—I have accounted for the men who work in the garden and in the brickyard and on the farm. We have a large number of men and women that are working in the building and on the lawns. We have a detail there we call our street men, who are uniformed the same as they are in New York. They go out every day and sweep the streets and walks, and others who do all of those things we call housework. These men that I spoke of are simply just the men who go out and do industrial work outside of the institution. The farm we consider as outside of the institution.

Prof. BRIGGS.—I want to say that in Rochester our inmates are all employed. Part of the time they are in the common schools and the remainder of the time they are in trade classes, in manual training classes, so that so far as the juvenile reformatory work there is concerned as to employment it is practically solved.

Mr. WILLIAM BRADFORD BUCK, New York.—I want to say a word about this labor problem. I think thus far the discussion has led up to but not quite reached a very important feature of it, and that is the labor problem as we understand it outside of charitable organizations.

As soon as an institution, either a prison or a charitable institution, begins to make any amount of goods it at once comes up against the question of how to dispose of them. Under the State laws, as you know, it is impossible to go into the open market and dispose of these things on account, largely, of the opposition which has been made to this line of procedure by the labor unions, and any proposition which is made now to increase the industries of any charitable institution, or to open the markets to charitable institutions, is met by the opposition both of the labor unions, and of the prisons which now have that privilege.

Now I want to plead, not for more privileges in the correctional institutions, but for more privileges for the charitable institutions. At such places as Craig Colony the management has found that it can very profitably, from the view point of the patient, and also from that of the State in the maintenance of the institution, introduce such a line of industry for instance as brick-making, at which a large number of the patients can be employed, or broom-making in which men not fitted for some of the heavier manual labor can be employed. Well as soon as it is thought to establish this industry, although a large proportion of the product would be used in the Colony—which is on the cottage or settlement plan, with a large number of buildings—it is found that the surplus product cannot be disposed of, and so without the ability to dispose of the surplus product the industry will not be a financial success.

I want to ask if it would be possible to extend to charitable institutions, such as Craig Colony, the same privileges which correctional institutions have at the present time, not of selling in the open market, but of selling to other institutions. I believe it would be only just to do that, and also that the product which would be produced in these charitable institutions, such as Craig Colony, would be of equal value to

that which is turned out in correctional institutions. It has been my privilege to observe considerable of the product which is supplied by the State prison commission to the charitable institutions in New York county, and I am very sorry to say a great deal of it is very inferior. I saw twelve chairs delivered to a State hospital which fell apart as soon as taken out of the rack, and I have seen sheets used at Bellevue hospital which the laundryman could not iron straight because they were cut improperly.

Now, I believe it is only just that our charitable institutions should have as good a quality of product as can be obtained for the same price in the open market, and I would submit—and I think the heads of charitable institutions who are here to-day will bear me out—that our city and county charitable institutions do not obtain from the prison commission the quality of articles which they ought to have. Would it not be wise as well as fair, in view of that fact, that our State charitable institutions have the same privilege of selling to other public institutions now enjoyed exclusively by our penal institutions.

Rev. THOMAS J. MULVEY, Brooklyn.—I am very glad the last speaker said something about the products of the penal institutions. I think before we should be willing to grant permission to charitable institutions to produce for the use of other State charitable institutions we should first provide for the use by these State and county institutions of what can be produced even now in penal institutions. It is a fact that there is not sufficient demand made by our State and county institutions for even the amount that can be turned out from such a place as the Kings County Penitentiary, or the other penal institutions on the East river. I believe the laws of the State of New York provide for the employment of these criminals during an eight hour working day. I know as a matter of fact that they are not employed for more than two or three hours a day, and sometimes only one or two days a week. You can readily see from what former speakers have said about the necessity of occupation, how very hurtful this enforced idleness must be to the inmates of penal institutions. Now, what may be the reason for this failure to make use of

the output of labor in these institutions I do not know. It may be there is more profit in getting these necessities from other sources, but I think in justice to the criminals, in justice to the inmates of the penal institutions, there should be a sufficient demand to keep them constantly employed. Through some acquaintance with the Kings County Penitentiary I know that the enforced idleness of prisoners there has sent more than one to Matteawan, and has fostered criminal practices which they learned before they got there, or taught them these criminal practices if they did not know them before they were committed. The result is we have men who are fast becoming subjects for insane asylums or will soon be victims of paralysis because of enforced idleness and morbidness due to this want of occupation. I think it was last night at the Conference that somebody was talking about the advisability of making the convicts provide for the maintenance of those left dependent through their conviction, left without their support. I do not see why it would not be a good idea to force men who are not able to take care of those outside to labor hard enough to supply their families with at least a pittance. That would certainly keep many of them out of penal institutions. I know of many men and some women down our way who are more ready to go to Kings County Penitentiary than they are to work for their families. If some system could be devised whereby the work of these men could be turned to account, and made available for their families, or those left without their support, I think it would be first a preventive and secondly a corrective.

MISS MARY VIDA CLARK, New York.—I should like very much to answer some of the questions and suggestions made by the last two speakers. I feel convinced that we should not sacrifice the interests of our charitable institutions to those of our penal institutions. We should not subordinate the sick and the defective to the criminal. If there is any danger that the prisoners will not be fully occupied we might better give attention to increasing not the quantity of their production but the quality of their production. Any one who is familiar with the charitable institutions which receive the output of the

prisons, knows that prison goods are not of standard quality. If the prisons would produce a better quality of supplies, making more varieties of clothing and material for clothing, for instance, and making chairs and furniture that would hold together, and not be stuck together with glue, so that they fall apart, I think everybody would be occupied and the training in good workmanship would be of much benefit to the prisoners and the product of their industry would be of value to the institutions supplied.

But it seems to me that the State charitable institutions have a right to support themselves, to make their own products, before they go to the prisons, or the outside market, or anywhere else, for what they need. It seems to me that there should be for the charitable institutions a law similar to that which has been passed for the benefit of the State hospitals for the insane. In connection with the State hospitals there has been established an admirable system of industrial employment and industrial coöperation, which should be a model for the State charitable institutions. Every State hospital produces a large share of its supplies. Most of the State hospitals have farms and gardens on which they raise almost all the vegetables they require, and some of them turn in a net profit to the State of as much as \$10,000 a year. They make their roads, prepare the stone for the roads, and do the entire work from the beginning to the end. They make all their clothing, their brushes and brooms, mats and mattresses, baskets, etc. Then they have a very admirable and efficient system of coöperation among the hospitals. There is a law which allows State hospitals to sell to one another their products, and the result is that one State hospital will establish a plant which will produce enough of a certain article for all or many of the other State hospitals at a reduced expense. For instance, one will have a soap factory and produce soap enough for several. Another will do all the printing and grind all the coffee and spices for all the State hospitals. From another, sufficiently well situated, dairy products are sent to all the hospitals in that vicinity. There is this very efficient and highly organized system of coöperation which allows each

of the State hospitals to supply not only its own wants, but to a very large degree the wants of others. I think we need just such a system as this in connection with the State charitable institutions. Every State charitable institution should be allowed and encouraged to produce whatever it can produce for its own use, and it should be able to produce for the use of other State institutions whatever it can with benefit produce for them. For instance, Craig Colony, which has a splendid brick-making plant, might produce brick for other charitable institutions, to erect buildings that are needed at Newark and Rome, for instance, as well as at Sonyea. Craig Colony ought to be able to make brooms not only for itself, but for other institutions where there are not facilities for so doing. I do not think it is for the best interest of the State that the charitable institutions should be prevented from doing what is not only desirable for the financial interests of the institution, but in many cases essential to remedial and curative treatment.

Rev. D. J. McMAHON, D. D. of New York.—I would like to emphasize particularly the last sentence of the report, though it is turning a little aside from the labor question. This last sentence of the report brings up a most important practical matter outside of the labor question, and that is the question of epileptics. According to the report there is provision for only 800 epileptics in the State institutions of New York, while there are in the almshouse and outside, I think, about 2,500, according to statistics. In my own district and round about it, there are a great many epileptics that are kept in their own homes, and are consequently a menace to other children, because of the nervous diseases which are consequent upon having epileptics near. I think, therefore, it would be well if the Conference would pass some resolution, or submit some proposition, perhaps make it in the nature of a report—that the State pass remedial legislation so that we may have sufficient provision for this class of defectives, for their own good and for that of other unafflicted children, and further that this provision should not be confined to one part of the State. Many of the people in the southern

part of the State of New York would not care to send their children away up in the northern part. If there could be two or three institutions of this kind in different parts of the State I am sure that the nervous condition of children that we know is quite high, would have a great cause removed.

Mr. DANIEL B. MURPHY, of Rochester.— I have received a paper forwarded by mail from Dr. Spratling, Medical Superintendent of Craig Colony, and with permission I will read it. It will throw some light on the subject discussed here this afternoon.

#### DR. SPRATLING'S PAPER.

Being unable, much to my regret, to attend this meeting in person, Mr. Stone was good enough to let me read his paper, and I would like to take part in the discussion far enough to say I feel the paper to be one of very great importance. The utilization of the able-bodied dependent's labor, for medical, ethical and economic reasons, is to my mind a matter that has not received at the hands of the State or community one-tenth the importance it demands. There are definite reasons why dependency exists, and while suitable occupation for those who become dependent will not by any means lessen the production of this enormous class—for we yet some day will strike at the root of the thing and endeavor to prevent as well as to cure—I say, while suitable occupation will not numerically lessen dependency, it will lessen the burden to society and to the State.

At the Craig Colony we have always had in mind the value of suitable occupation for those capable of performing it. We set no heavy tasks, require nothing of a patient in a physical way which he cannot easily give, and be made better in the giving, and the longer we study the results that accrue from proper labor, mental and physical, the firmer our conviction grows that the Colony, whatever its other advantages to the class we care for, would be a sorry place, indeed, if none were required to indulge in physical exercise.

There are distinctive physiologic reasons that show, as plain as plain can be, why suitable exercise is best for all who can

undertake it. Our people who can do so, work not to exceed thirty-five hours a week, out of a possible sixty. Two afternoons each week they have entirely free in which to do as they please, the men spending it on the athletic field.

Only 50 per cent. of all our patients can do work of a remunerative kind; that is, work that has a market value; 25 per cent. can do housework only, on which it is difficult to fix any value; while the remaining 25 per cent. can do nothing at all.

The first 200 patients we received came to us unable to undertake any form of occupation. We taught them how to employ themselves for their good, a difficult thing to do, and which it took three years to accomplish. Now the spirit to do is observed in the case of nearly all new admissions in a very satisfactory way.

But the point I wish to make is this: We are not yet training these people in the right way. We would like a little more freedom in employing people to teach those who can learn to be useful. We want, as Mr. Stone says, a special class of industrial instructors, and we would like to pay them what their labor is worth. It is a matter of simple economy, to my mind, to do this. This whole question of the industrial training of the able-bodied dependent under State care is scarcely less important than the demand for some action on the part of the State looking to a less expensive system of care for those it now watches over, but can never cure, and for more expense for the perfection of education, treatment and training of those who can be cured.

We are striving for a division of the population at Sonyea broadly along these lines, our policy being a minimum of cost of care for those who represent the minimum of hope of cure, and a maximum of cost for the care and treatment of those who represent the most likelihood of cure.

Better classification, more cost for some, less for others, better forms of industrial training for those who can acquire it, and beyond all a thorough study, and, wherever possible, adoption of methods designed to prevent that which cannot be cured.

Chairman LONG.—The time having now elapsed for the discussion of this subject, I will declare the same closed. The next subject on the program is a paper, "Care of Veterans in Homes," by Mrs. Ellen M. Putnam, Superintendent New York State Women's Relief Corps Home, Oxford.

#### CARE OF VETERANS IN HOMES.

In presenting these few thoughts to this Conference, in view of the fact that the institution over which I have the honor to preside is rather a unique one, I may be pardoned if I talk shop a little bit. I want to say, now, we have no difficulty to start out with about solving the labor problem. The labor problem was solved by those who are eligible to the institution in the years '61-65 in the line.

Call not the nation ungrateful. 'Tis true, the service rendered was great and could not be measured by dollars and cents, because of the homes made desolate, the broken hearts, the awful uncertainty of the fate of many who never returned from that great civil struggle.

For the care of its dependent survivors there have been established, and they are in full operation, eight national homes, and one in Tennessee is in course of construction. These national homes cared for over 35,000 veterans the last fiscal year, with a total of about 1,800 deaths. Besides these national homes, there are thirty State homes in twenty-seven States, that have cared during the past year for over 18,000, making a grand total of over 61,000 veterans of the Civil War cared for in National and State homes. All hail our own glorious Empire State, who so generously and willingly gave over 400,000 of her brave sons to go forth and battle for home and country, and now we find, thirty-five years after the close of that great struggle, she has magnanimously established and supports two homes for the care of her defenders and their dependent ones. The home at Bath, caring for veterans only, was conceived by the Grand Army of the Republic and the personal efforts of Corporal James Tanner. Soon the funds were exhausted and the prospect of securing means by volun-

tary contributions seemed hopeless. A proposition was made to the Legislature to turn over to the State the property in hand, provided it would finish, furnish and maintain. This proposition was accepted. The last fiscal year, this delightful and well-managed home cared for 2,947 veterans; loss by death, 124.

And now we come to our own home and the class of people we care for. The New York State Woman's Relief Corps Home, situated at Oxford, Chenango county, was established May, 1894, Governor R. P. Flower signing the bill providing for its establishment, and appointing a commission to locate a site and report to the next Legislature. At the first meeting of the commission, it was decided to notify by circular letter, the mayor of each city, president of each village and supervisor of towns, of the passage of this act, and invite their coöperation in the location of a site. These circulars met with a generous response, and while we asked but twenty-five acres, we had offers of thirty-nine sites containing 100 acres free. These thirty-nine sites were visited by the commission and, after careful deliberation, Oxford was chosen. In January, 1895, our report was made to the Legislature, an appropriation was granted for building, and so started our Home. This was not accomplished without much labor and many disappointments. "But all things come to those who wait," particularly if they hustle while they wait. The idea of this Home was conceived by the Woman's Relief Corps, an organization auxiliary to the Grand Army of the Republic, who assist in caring for the veteran and his dependent ones. The women who had this work in hand saw the necessity of having some place where the aged dependent veteran and his wife may be cared for, and spend their remaining days together. True, the Home at Bath provided for the veteran, but there was no place for his wife, mother or widow. It has been said, and truly, "The successful prosecution of the war was due to the women of the loyal States, as much as to the men. Their faith cheered, their prayers were with them on the bed of pain and death, the thought of those at home was comfort in hardship, encouragement on the field, and support in adversity." The battle fought

by them at home was, perhaps a greater than theirs, though on different fields, so provision must be made for those who fought bravely on the home battle field.

"The greatest battle that ever was fought, shall I tell you where and when? On the maps of the world, you'll find it not, 'twas fought by the mothers of men.

Deep in the walls of a woman's heart, of the women who would not yield, Who silently, bravely bore their part, lo! there is the battle fought."

The following covers the requirements for admission:

1. For man and wife, honorable discharge, proof of marriage previous to 1880, both of good moral character and sound mind.
2. For widows, honorable discharge of her husband, proof of marriage previous to 1880.
3. For mothers, honorable discharge of her son, good moral character and sound mind.
4. For army nurses, honorable discharge, good moral character and sound mind.

For all, proper applications and papers as required, one year's residence in the State, no relatives of sufficient ability under laws of the State of New York, liable for their support or maintenance.

In February, 1898, following the opening of the Home, May, 1897, we made application to the National Board of Managers for disabled volunteer soldiers to be admitted. Our petition was granted and thereby the National Government pays to the State, \$100 per year for each man cared for in our Home. We make, to that board, tri-monthly reports of daily attendance, and quarterly financial statements are thoroughly mustered and inspected by an assistant inspector-general of their board twice a year.

The question as to the disposition of pensions is often asked. Each pensioner signs an agreement, before being admitted, to turn over to the treasurer of the board his pension check, and in return, he receives a check for one-half for his judicious expenditure, the other half being deposited in the bank to save for him in case he desires to leave the Home, so that he may have something for his needs, and in the case of a woman, that she may have a burial fund, the government providing a burial

fund for veterans only. This plan has worked charmingly, and some of these old people, for the first time in their lives, have a bank account.

True, in some cases, it has a tendency to set them up and make them feel their importance, but this can be easily settled. Had I been asked to tell you how to care for our class of people prior to my assuming that responsibility, I do not think I would have hesitated, as to-day, as I assure you, I knew better or thought I knew better how to care for them before I undertook it than I do now after five and a half years' service. It is so easy, if you have the least ability to write, to run an institution on paper. The management of it, theoretically, differs widely from the practical and why not? All the practical methods your brain can contrive must be brought into play. You have as many dispositions and characters to deal with as you have people; the method employed for one does not work with another. "Once a man, twice a child," is clearly demonstrated in institutions caring for adults. As the years creep on, the mind is often enfeebled, and we find ourselves caring for some, as in years before, we planned and cared for children. Environment and habit have much to do with the molding and formation of character and disposition, and as a rule, the environment and habits of most of those who apply for admission to the Home have not been such as would be conducive to happiness, either there or elsewhere. The struggle for existence has made some cynical, others morose and ill-natured, and constant brooding over real or imaginary trials has made many hard and desperate, blaming cruel fate for their own weaknesses, augmented by age and infirmities, so that the members of such a Home as ours must of necessity contain a curious and varied group of people, filled with hallucinations, formed habits, living in the present but ever dreaming of the past. Within the past decade, institutional work has lost much of the rigor of system with which it was bound, and those of us who have closely followed the trend of public charities realize how immeasurably it has gained in helpfulness to humanity since its emancipation. No longer is the individual lost in an aggregation, but each beneficiary is given that careful, earnest

study his mental and physical condition demands of us, who are his guardians before God and the law. It is this study of the segregation that employs all of the waking and the larger part of the sleeping hours of the conscientious superintendent; how best to combine, dovetail and overlap the various personal interests of a large number of people in one smoothly working plan for the good of all is a problem that arises as frequently as the admission of a new member, and since friction and dissatisfaction are sure to exist, they should be met in advance boldly, thus minimizing their influence. This is where the wise, vigilant superintendent shows himself equal to his task. We, within the walls of an asylum for our less fortunate brothers, are very apt to think that all the cranks and most of the disagreeable people in the world have, upon one or another pretext, been consigned to public institutions. It is not always easy to keep in mind, in dealing with these unfortunates, the truth that poverty and ill-health are promoters of bad temper, and that the very fact of being a recipient of charity has taken from these poor querulous souls that self-respect which is the saving grace of mankind. Classified in a large way, the members of any of our benevolent institutions would stand divided under the following heads:

1. The comparatively able-bodied capable members.
2. The comparatively able-bodied incapable members.
3. The crippled and helpless.
4. The aged.
5. The sick.

Of the first class named the Home at Oxford, from the nature of its provisions, will probably show the largest percentage among State institutions. Bear in mind that I have said comparatively able-bodied, which means that within certain limits these people can do a great deal for themselves and are helpful to a large degree to others. All our members are on the down grade of life, and with these counted strongest there are such frequent intervals of illness that whatever work they may take up in the social and domestic life of the Home is at best intermittent. From the members' side, certainly, work is

desirable; they are happier when employed and less liable to fall into homesickness and discontent and those nervous disorders that come in the wake of a mental disturbance. So, whenever a member of the Home is found willing to take upon himself some little service of the house, or for another member, some light work is assigned him. That this help is all too likely to fail at a most untimely moment makes it none the less valued, and the superintendent is always careful to show her appreciation of the spirit that prompted it. To this first class all the other members look for such social life as an institution affords; it establishes the tone and well it is if there is a predominating element of refinement here to temper the coarser strata that is sure to be in evidence. Society in our institution is exactly like its prototype in the great world outside; it is as imitative, as servile, and as pliable, but there is this difference in favor of the institution—the club meets every day. I have always found plenty of good men and women whose helpful Christian spirit acts like a tonic upon their weaker associates, and whose sterling good sense clears a threatening atmosphere like electricity. In sickness and death at the Home these people have been invaluable with their ready sympathy and unfailing kindness. This class are members of the Home from causes quite beyond their control; bad investments, ungrateful children, and low be it spoken since my sex stands for all that the word charity covers—daughters-in-law: I think that I may safely say that fifty per cent. of the aged women sent to this Home are victims of daughters-in-law, women to whom a husband's mother is an obstruction and a trouble to be gotten rid of at the earliest opportunity.

2. The able-bodied incapables. What I have said of the physical condition of the first class applies to this division with a difference. The infirmities of this second class are largely of their own making. In this category I place all the indolent and shiftless and weak-minded who have naturally made shipwreck of their lives; the intemperate, who have "sown the wind and are reaping the whirlwind;" the fault finders; the tale bearers; those who are never happy unless they are miserable,

and those who diligently hunt trouble. It is this class which makes the largest demand upon the time and patience of the management. It calls for constant and careful scrutiny in all its outgoings and its incomings; it will bear watching day and night, and then one is not always sure of preventing trouble and friction; it is the class that balks at rules from start to finish; it raises every possible obstacle to discipline that it dares, and as it will not employ itself otherwise, it turns as naturally to mischief as the "sparks fly upward." Aside from the constant supervision necessary these people demand personal care to a tiresome degree, they are not even good to themselves. Their rooms, bedding and clothing must be daily inspected; careless and indifferent to all laws of health, they resent this surveillance; these are the members to whom the weekly bath is a work of supererogation to be complied with only upon the issuing of a special ukase from the superintendent. Among these people we find the intolerable gossip, the "woman with the familiar spirit," who lies in wait for the unwary, and the woman who claims more of the grace of God than her fellow mortals; she is hated and avoided to such a degree that her associates flee from her as "the pestilence that walketh at noonday." The very corridor upon which her room opens is unpopular as a residence, and only the justice of the superintendent protects her from insult. But by far the most serious trouble this class can make is from intemperance. We know it does not require very much intoxicating liquor to affect an old person, and knowing that it is the love of drink that has brought some where they are, we realize that it is quite too late for complete reformation. The rules of the Home are stringent upon this point, but with the passing of years justice has been more frequently tempered with mercy. The management realizes that it has to do with helpless old people and their infirmities, and here is where prevention is the only possible treatment.

3. The crippled. As the distance between us and the Civil War widens we receive more frequently this class at our Home. The old soldier, who has made a good fight for a living, has

been finally disarmed. "His ancient wounds their scars expand," and rheumatism seizes upon all injuries and brings him helpless to us for the care he has well earned. The Home is generously equipped for those sufferers; all the rooms of the lower corridor are reserved for them. This class needs company and amusement, and, more often, some one willing to read to them. It is to the able-bodied capables we look to supply, in a large measure, these wants, and never have they failed us. When the crippled or helpless members have a pension they are more than pleased and anxious to remunerate any other member for any continued service. This relieves the State from the expense of a large nursing corps, and reduces hospital work in an appreciable degree.

4. The aged. Coming to this group it seems to me I could, in perfect justice to my household, include the whole membership within its provisions; the line of demarkation is so slight between the man and woman just this side of "three score and ten" and those "who by reason of strength have reached four score." We have seven mothers of veterans, whose ages range from seventy-nine to ninety-two years. It is for the comfort of this class that we find our hospital staff inadequate. As everyone knows, whose privilege it has been to take care of some dear aged parent, the demands of old age are far more insistent than those of childhood; they take no continuous rest, and so with them night is turned into day and day into night. They are up at unseasonable times and need warmth and nourishment at unreasonable hours; when they are put to bed there is no guarantee of their staying there for any length of time, and but that some one has orders to look into their rooms frequently during the night they would suffer. It is my plan to keep the helpless and the aged in one corridor, where they can have the oversight of a nurse. Their food, which is largely cereals, milk, eggs, butter and sugar, is an expensive diet, and is generously taken into account by those who so carefully scrutinize our estimates. Then, too, they must have stimulants frequently to keep the wavering flame of life aglow. Their appetites are enormous and their craving for sweets unappeasable. Their extreme sensitiveness to cold is painfully

apparent in cool summer mornings and nights when it is quite impossible, for the comfort of others, to keep up steam heat. The sick, like the poor, we have always with us, and thanks to the generous women of the Woman's Relief Corps of the State, our hospital is furnished with every modern appliance for their better care and greater comfort. Paralysis, naturally, is the most common form of ailment, and as this disease is neither contagious nor disagreeable several patients of the same sex can be cared for in one of the ward rooms, thus economizing the time and labor of attendants; with cancer patients this is not possible, and the individuals are isolated. A member of an institution thinks that it is his privilege as a State protégé to have the services of a physician no matter how slight his ailment; it seems a point of personal honor, and the superintendent is censured should she fail to summon the doctor. It does not alter the case in the slightest that the illness yields readily to domestic remedies. The patient feels that he has been defrauded of that eclat which makes convalescence endurable.

Our population at present is 125, 30 men with their wives, 7 mothers, 57 widows and 1 army nurse.

To the soldier of the Civil War our State has never been lacking in gratitude. It has protected his interest as a wage-earner by special legislation on his return from the field, and now, in his declining years, it maintains generously this beautiful Home at Oxford for himself and his wife, mother or widow. On every line of charity our great Empire State stands foremost; its paternal care has never been evoked in vain for any form of human misery, and this Conference to-day shows how wide and far-reaching is the uplifting influence of organized charity. It shows how thoroughly all classes of people have awakened to the needs of their less fortunate neighbors, and how earnestly they have taken up the social question to seek solution of these involved, intricate problems, how we shall make the lives of the submerged more healthy, useful and happier, and while we make no sort of apology for any shortcomings of our veterans, among other classes of people we find the same, we ask "For what he did and what he dared, remember him to-day." We associate him closely with our flag and

the republic for which it stands; our flag consecrated on many battlefields from Lexington to Manila, brought back to us baptized in the blood of our dearest and best, with not a star missing.

Still through the centuries yet to be,  
 More bright may its glories shine,  
 Still honored the name of the mighty dead,  
 Whose hearts and whose hopes were thine.  
 Still under thy just and thy gentle sway  
 Thou shalt make of the nations one;  
 Nor dim be the light of thy splendid day  
 When a thousand years are done.  
 Thou shalt stretch broad arms over land and sea  
 While thy millions shall shout anew  
 For the World's one banner,  
 The Flag of the Free,  
 The Red and the White and the Blue.

#### DISCUSSION ON CARE OF VETERANS IN HOMES.

The discussion on "Care of Veterans in Homes" was opened by Major John Crane, of New York city.

Major CRANE.—I am sure that you are all pleased and delighted with the remarkable paper of Mrs. Putnam. She opens up a vista to us who are connected with other soldiers' homes that we have never contemplated before. We are used to the veteran in the concrete and we find it enough to manage him, but she takes not only the veteran, but his wife, his mother, his widow, and even his nurse.

Now, as an old officer who has served during the Civil War, I would draw the line at the nurse. My observation was that a great part of the work performed by the nurse was flirting with the officers. Perhaps, under the peculiar circumstances of the occasion, she was perfectly justified and regarded it as a part of her duty. If such is the case, I am sure I can give her a certificate of work well and faithfully performed.

I jotted down a few remarks here in regard to the care of veterans in homes drawn from my own experience.

Good results are obtained only where there is a high class board of trustees—old officers and soldiers with honorable records and experience in affairs, who understand the needs of the soldiers, and who are above the suspicion of being interested in contracts of any kind or nature connected with the home.

When such a board is supplemented by a proper commandant, then the lot of an old veteran is a happy one. The commandant should be an old officer of experience in the command of men in the field; also a man of experience in business affairs, a man of integrity and honor and strength of character. Such an officer will not be a week in command when his power will be recognized by the old soldiers who have done real service. That mysterious power which the real leader and commander of men exercised in the army, by which men obeyed him with alacrity, without thought of question, follows him here. He will have all the good men with him.

If there are any incompetent subordinates, he will soon discern it and will reorganize the staff. He will recognize the genuine soldier, where he is competent, and advance him to such position as he is qualified to fill, and get rid of all the civilians, possible. He will look after the food and comfort of the men, and the expenditure of the funds. He will see that the canteen is not allowed to degenerate into a rendezvous for drunkards, but that it is kept clean and orderly; that it is kept in such an orderly condition that it might be considered a gentleman's club; that obscene or profane language is not permitted. This would please the great majority of the soldiers and would encourage them to remain on the premises instead of going to the miserable dives in the vicinity of the camp.

Under such a commandant the home would be a real home for the inmates, but the neighborhood would be up in arms against him. The dozens of dives that have been built right up to the line of the home would protest. Their owners are a power on election day, for they can "deliver the goods." Consequently, they have a pull. Every crime possible for a man to commit will be charged against the commandant. Local boards will pass resolutions asking why the beef raised in "Blank county" is no longer bought at the Soldiers' Home, and who is the "nigger in the woodpile" that causes certain corporations, outside of the said county, to be preferred.

The tendency of every locality which has an institution supported by the State or nation, is to look upon it as a plum for its special benefit; all parties join in this and divide the profit.

A local board, therefore, which would inevitably pass under the control of the venal and corrupt, would, in my opinion, be ruinous to the institutions. It would become like the ordinary county poorhouse.

God forbid that we should ever see any institution pass under such management.

I am led to make these last remarks from the fact there was a time when there was a threatened change in the management by which local boards were to take control. Fortunately that danger has passed away and I think it probably will not be renewed again. If time permitted, I could tell you of the management of institutions which did pass under the control of local members of the board, instances that would astonish you. For instance, in one institution the leading politicians of both parties forming a banking house in order to care for the funds, which they did for many years, never paying any interest to the institution. It was a very good thing for them, but now, for the last two years, the funds of that institution bring two and a half per cent., being a thousand to fifteen hundred dollars a year. And so it was with everything else. The beef was all bought in that particular county, and, therefore, all the old superannuated cows that could not be sold for anything else were dumped in on the soldiers' home. These are instances of what would become of our institutions if they passed under the control of local boards.

Mr. WILLIAM I. NICHOLS, Brooklyn.—I may be permitted to say in connection with the subject of nurses that I think the shade of Dorothy Dix would rise and refute the claim that nurses were always engaged in flirting with officers. I think there were many of these women, as I well remember, very noble women. I should hope they would not come to depend upon any public aid, but if they should be in that need I do not think that any soldier on the battlefield would be more entitled to the very best care they could receive than those who entered the army service as nurses.

Mrs. PUTNAM.—You must take into consideration a name that will go down in the history of our children's children, the name

of Clara Barton. We will always hold in grateful reverence the services of the army nurse.

Major CRANE.—I regret that I have been taken so seriously. Out of gratitude for the army nurses I remember and hold in high regard, I will take it all back.

The fifth session of the Conference was adjourned by the President at 12.30 p. m.

### SIXTH SESSION.

*Thursday Afternoon, November 20, 1902, Senate Chamber.*

The Conference was called to order by the President, who introduced to the Conference, as Chairman of the session, Mr. James Wood, President of the Bedford State Reformatory for Women, and Chairman of the Committee on the Treatment of the Criminal, who presented the report of the Committee.

Mr. Wood prefaced the reading of his report by saying:

Those who have been present at the sessions of this Conference since its opening have undoubtedly noticed that a number of persons who have spoken and presented papers and taken part in the discussions have emphasized the necessity of trained officials, trained employes, for carrying on the work of the State in these various institutions. This morning, in the paper that was presented on the labor question in institutions, that was emphasized, and last evening it was very noticeable in the subject presented by Judge Murphy of Buffalo. In the paper he read, emphasis was laid upon the necessity of special training for this department of work. In the report of the Committee on the Treatment of the Criminal, which I will present, this matter is discussed.

### REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON TREATMENT OF THE CRIMINAL.

Recent legislation has greatly changed the conditions under which we are to consider "The Treatment of the Criminal." The establishment of reformatories and the adoption of sys-

tems of probation and of parole present the subject in new aspects and require new methods of consideration. We must now study the criminal in his multiform character and endeavor to determine what causes have produced the results manifested in his particular case. We must know him as he has lived, in the associations he has voluntarily chosen, or which circumstances have forced upon him, and we must be able to judge, with a fair degree of certainty, what his course of conduct will be when, upon probation or parole, he has a freedom of choice in the open opportunities that will be presented to him. The great mass of information gathered from the study of the criminal behind prison bars has very little value for our purpose. Indeed, the criminal in prison rarely shows his real self, and while the study of his characteristics there may be of great value in determining what his treatment in confinement should be, it may lead to very incorrect conclusions as to what he will do, or how he will be influenced under the circumstances of a very different situation. The treatment of the criminal in prison is a simple problem compared with the complex one presented by the criminal at large, though under the restraint of the probation and parole laws.

Probation and parole have already demonstrated their usefulness, and will unquestionably remain as permanent factors in our system. They will be modified and improved as experience may suggest, but the principles upon which they are founded have such a scientific adaptation to the needs of humanity that they cannot fail to meet the severest tests of practice. Massachusetts has had a probation law since 1878, while as long ago as 1849 John Augustus, in Boston, put the principles of probation into actual practice and for many years carried on his work in conjunction with the courts with very satisfactory results. A number of the cities and states of the middle west have had a similar experience. Our probation law in New York went into operation September 1, 1901, and has shown very gratifying results.

The system of parole commends itself to every intelligent mind, both as a theoretical method of dealing with the proper class of criminals and as illustrated in its practical operations,

and so far as we can judge there is no likelihood of its being abandoned. Since, therefore, we have every reason to expect that probation and parole will remain as an established system, we may well set ourselves to making a careful inquiry as to what may be done to render their operation more efficient, so that the best possible results may be obtained for the benefit of the criminal, for society and for the State.

At present the weakest point in the new system of reformation is the want of proper training on the part of those who, in immediate contact with the criminal, put it into practical operation. We have constructed excellent machinery and have placed it in untrained hands to do its work. Here and there persons are found who are rarely endowed by nature for this kind of work, but it seems to be a matter of chance whether they will find their proper field of service. When this does happen, as it did in the case of Ellen Cheney Johnson, at Sherborn, Mass., and of others who might be named, great good is accomplished, but these are few and far between. As no provision is made for bringing the work and such workers together, those who have special qualifications for such important service to the State and to humanity are more likely to be employed in other fields than in this one for which they are naturally fitted. As a result, those who have the duty of selection and appointment are too often compelled to make such selection as they can from a list composed of individuals who offer themselves for one reason or another, and usually because they seek employment simply as a means of obtaining a livelihood. This applies to every department of the State's charitable and reformatory work. The State has many competent and very efficient officers in its service, and yet the indisputable fact remains that incompetence is far too common, resulting in various degrees of failure in the work which the State has designed and for which it expends great amounts of money. We are thus confronted with a situation that demands our serious consideration. The State cannot afford to allow the present conditions to continue. We are forced to inquire what can be done to improve this situation and to remedy this serious defect.

It must be manifest to everyone that the State has no right to expect competency in this department of service any more than in others, without special preparation and training for it. If the mechanic must serve some form of apprenticeship, if the steam engineer must have a special training, if the teacher in any department of science must be instructed in that field of knowledge, if the doctor and the lawyer must have diplomas from institutions authorized to confer degrees after definite courses of study, why must there not be a similar requirement for those who are to deal with some of the most difficult problems with which men and women can be confronted? *Can we expect success without a special training for the service?*

The report upon the Treatment of the Criminal of the Committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction held in Detroit, in June of this year, was a plea for more advanced and scientific methods in the treatment of criminals. They said, "We should insist that all persons intrusted with the care or supervision of criminals shall make a study of the nature and characteristics of criminals and of all that has been written about them. The best interests and true welfare of the criminal are inseparably bound up with those of society. Society for its own sake, for the defence of the State, and to subserve the public good, must take adequate measures to reform the criminal and to retain control of him until he is fit to act the part of the virtuous and law-abiding man." To whose hands shall this most important and delicate service be intrusted?

Josiah Flynt, in his interesting "Tramping with Tramps," makes the pertinent statement in connection with this subject: "The management of reformatories should be in scientific hands, and just here I am constrained to plead for the training of young men and women for the rare usefulness that awaits them in such institutions. It is to these places that the children I have been describing will have to go, and, with all respect to the officials now in charge, I believe that there are apt and gifted young men and women in this country who could bring to them invaluable assistance if they could only be persuaded to train for it and to offer it. I do not know why it is, but for

some reason these institutions do not yet appeal to any large number of students who intend taking service in the ranks of reform. The university settlement attracts many, and this is one of the manifestations of the universal brotherhood that is to be. Meanwhile there is a moral hospital service to be carried on in penal and reformatory houses. Shall it be done by raw, untrained hands, by selfish quacks, or by careful, scientific students? Must the moral nurse and physician be chosen for his ability to control votes, or to treat his patients with skilled attention and consideration? If the treatment of physical disease offers attractions that call thousands upon thousands of young men and women into the nursing and medical professions, here is a field even more fascinating to the student, and so full of opportunity and interesting employment that it will be a wonder if the supply does not speedily exceed the demand."

Everywhere we find the need for this training. Probation is simply the suspension of sentence. Very few judges and magistrates can be found who would not gladly avail themselves of the opinion of a trained probation officer who knows more of sociology and criminology than they do. It is there that the duty of the probation officer begins, and at each succeeding step in the career of the one committed to his or her supervision the principles of these sciences need to be understood. The matter of parole is one of the most difficult problems with which those who manage penal and reformatory institutions have to deal, and, while the final decision should rest with the board, the opinion of an expert will greatly aid them in reaching a wise decision. The parole officer needs thorough knowledge of criminal tendencies and influences to perform his duty successfully. In reformatory institutions there is a crying need for trained officers, especially in subordinate positions. As a rule the heads of these institutions and the higher grades of the staff are competent, and usually have had special training for their work, but in the lower grades the inefficiency is appalling. Through this, the best considered plans are made unavailing. These are the officers who come into immediate and constant personal touch with the inmates, and the results de-

pend upon their fitness for their work. Alas, what rough and awkward hands attempt the most delicate tasks! Elizabeth Fry, the great pioneer in prison reform in England, said: "The good principle in the hearts of many abandoned persons may be compared to the few remaining sparks in a nearly extinguished fire. By means of the utmost care and attention, united with most gentle treatment, these may yet be fanned into flame; but under the operation of a rough and violent hand they will presently disappear and be lost forever." Everyone who has had experience with fire upon the domestic hearth, or in the open camp, and who also knows the chords that vibrate in human souls, appreciates the fitness of the illustration.

Among the services at an institution in which it is most difficult to find efficiency are those that pertain to the discipline. A rigid prison discipline is comparatively easy of attainment. Restraint with cast iron rules can be enforced by anyone with determination and ordinary intelligence. Just in proportion as such prison discipline is departed from do the difficulties increase, and tact and skill and expert knowledge and trained judgment are required. Gentleness and kindness lie at the very foundation of reformatory work. The inmate who feels that the law is harsh and cruel must be made to see that it is considerate and kind. The only effective control of a prisoner is self-control, and this can be developed only as all the qualities are developed, by exercise. Harsh discipline gives no opportunity for this. It also keeps ever before the inmates the fact that they are prisoners, and reminds them constantly of their crime.

Ellen Cheney Johnson said truly, "No man is inspired or softened by having his sins or his misfortunes constantly held up before him; no courage of soul or purity of purpose comes from dwelling upon a wretched past or an unhappy present. The impulse must be forward and upward and outward."

In many cases a harsh discipline makes of the inmate a determined enemy to all discipline. It has been well said that no State is so strong that it can afford to make a single needless enemy. Surely no reformatory work can be so self-reliant that

it can afford to make a hopeless and defiant offender of any subject it has in hand.

And yet obedience, prompt, ready, unquestioning obedience, must be had. It can come only from delicate, tactful, patient instruction. A prisoner who obeys because she is afraid to disobey can be trusted as far as the arm of authority can reach and no farther. One who obeys because she thinks obedience pays better than disobedience may fail when the trial comes. The right desire and purpose to improve must be developed in the heart if the life is to be made what it should be.

Thorough training, expert knowledge, and poise of character are necessary to shun successfully the rocks upon either hand of reformatory training, with a fair prospect of reaching the end desired.

It is apparent that instruction and training are required in every branch of reformatory work. How can it be given? The past experience of hospitals shows the way. These institutions experienced the most serious difficulty in obtaining the proper nurses for their patients until training schools were established in them. Then the difficulty was overcome.

Now the hospital wards are abundantly supplied with competent nurses, while the public at large reaps untold benefits from the trained ability that goes everywhere to aid the work of the doctor in lessening the suffering and saving the lives of afflicted ones. A similar system may be established in our institutions and operated upon similar lines. Young men and women can take prescribed courses of study along with practical experience in the work of the institution. They can be paid according to the work done, as their service would release present employees. Rigid examinations should be held and, at the end of the course, diplomas should be given. The instruction should be given under the supervision of the Regents of the University, or the State Board of Charities, and should be maintained to a given standard. One institution for men and one for women should be selected for these training schools. Ultimately, employment in any of the positions connected with the reformatory work should be exclusively given to the graduates of such schools. This would offer an inducement for young

men and women to take the course of study. It may be necessary to increase the compensation for the lower grades of officers as an additional inducement for entering the service, but this would be no loss to the State as it will receive much greater return for the amount paid for service, as well as from the capital invested in the institutions. The instruction would not necessarily cost the State anything, as the higher officers giving it could be relieved of much detail work by the students.

In reference to the statement just made, that the system shows greater return from the money it expends in support of these institutions, I want to cite you an illustration. The State Reformatory for Women, at Bedford, where there are five buildings with matrons, and these matrons are persons of ability, one cottage has for a considerable time been in charge of a matron who is a graduate of the Drexel Institute in Philadelphia, and had a thorough scientific training in cooking and in food supplies, and this very striking result is observed. Precisely the same rations, the same amount of food, in proportion to the number of inmates, is distributed to each of these cottages. It is found that this cottage, with an equal number of inmates, uses less food per capita than any other of the buildings in the whole institution. The State has a very considerable saving in the food used in that cottage with a given number of people, over the food used in the other cottages of the institution, and this can be attributed only to the fact that the food is cared for, prepared and served under the skilful eye of a highly trained official in that department. And there is something more. Those connected with institutions know that complaints from the inmates with regard to food are very common. While complaints have continually been made in regard to the food and table service of other cottages, there have been no complaints from inmates of this cottage where the cooking is under the care of this trained official and where the food is served in this way. In inspecting the buildings of the institution, in going into the different cottages at meal times, one has only to glance over the table to see that a skilled hand has been at work. Although the person herself has never touched the table, yet she has trained the inmates of her cot-

tage so that the table is always attractive and there is always an inviting variety of food served, while in the other cottages it may seem to be the reverse.

As an example of the course of instruction that might be given, the following is offered for an institution for women:

TENTATIVE COURSE OF STUDY FOR A TRAINING SCHOOL FOR  
INSTITUTION WORKERS.

*The Plan combines Theoretical and Practical Work, after the  
Manner of the Training Schools for Nurses.*

A two years' course is proposed, each year consisting of two semesters. From September 1st to December 20th, an average of one hour per day for lecture work and one hour per day for study, with eight hours of practical work, making a ten-hour day, is proposed. From December 20th to January 2d the theoretical work to be suspended and eight hours work per day to be required. From January to June, two hours per day study and lecture work, and eight hours practical work as in the first semester. From July 1st to August 31st, theoretical work to be suspended and ten hours per day practical work required, with two weeks vacation for each student.

COURSE OF STUDY.

*First Year — First Semester.*

1. Elementary physiology, one hour per week.
2. Institution cooking, practical demonstration; three hours per week.
3. Elementary principles of psychology, one hour per week.

*First Year — Second Semester.*

1. Hygiene, twelve lessons.
2. Courses in waitress and laundry work, twelve lessons.
3. Institution discipline and management, twelve lessons (with visits to various institutions when practicable).
4. Sociology—the development of modern society with special attention to modern social interdependence, one hour per week.

*Second Year — First Semester.*

1. Theory of cooking. Study of food principles, their uses, composition of foods, calculation of dietary, etc., one hour per week.
2. Sociology — a study of social environment with relation to crime, one hour per week.
3. Emergencies and home nursing, one hour per week.
4. Normal course in sewing, one hour per week.

*Second Year — Second Semester.*

1. House sanitation (heating, lighting, plumbing and ventilation), one hour per week.
2. Advanced course in cooking, two hours per week.
3. Sociology — a study of the growth and development of methods in penal and reform institutions.
4. The Criminal Code and Prison Laws.
5. The principles of ethics, with practical application to reform work.

This can scarcely be called an experiment as its practicability has been so thoroughly demonstrated in the hospital training schools. Somewhat similar instruction is given in several European countries. In France and Germany much is done in this direction. In Berlin there is a school for policemen, where for six months they are required to pursue special studies during several hours in each day. In Bavaria the highest prison warden must be a well-trained lawyer, and there are a number of former judges occupying these positions.

Chairman Wood.— Now, ladies and gentlemen, there is a subject that is of peculiar interest to every institution, whatever its character, and that is the subject of dietaries, and it has been thought well that this subject should be presented to this Conference. In seeking for the best authority upon this subject the committee went outside the State and secured Professor Atwater, of Middletown, Conn., recognized as the highest authority upon this subject, and at our earnest solicitation Pro-

fessor Atwater has prepared a paper upon this subject which he will now present.

Prof. W. O. Atwater, Ph. D., Professor of Chemistry, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., then read the following paper on Dietaries for State Institutions:

### DIETARIES FOR STATE INSTITUTIONS.

In discussing briefly the general subject of dietaries for State institutions, it is not my purpose to state just what kinds and amounts of food ought to be supplied to prisons, hospitals, asylums or almshouses; indeed, I should not know exactly what to prescribe even if there were time to discuss that phase of this subject. What I wish to urge upon you is the importance of finding out more about these things, for the knowledge possessed by even the most learned and most skilful expert is entirely insufficient to meet the demand. I come before you with a plea for investigation into the broad subject of the food and nutrition of the dependent and delinquent classes, and the proper dietary management of the institutions in which they are cared for. I am very glad to have the opportunity to speak of this subject in New York and to New Yorkers who are interested in such institutions, for I am persuaded that such an enterprise may be made most useful, and that there is no State in the Union which offers a better opportunity, if as good, for its successful prosecution as your own. You have a great many of these people to care for, a great diversity of institutions for their care, and you have also such organization as to make it easily possible to conduct the needed inquiries; to make them thoroughly practical and effective; to secure from them an advantage for your own State far in excess of the cost, and at the same time to render a service which will be useful elsewhere as well as within your own borders.

According to the statement of one of the officers in charge of your charitable institutions, not far from 100,000 people are housed, clothed and fed in public institutions in the State of New York. The care of these people costs the State about

\$26,000,000 per year, of which, as nearly as I can learn, about \$6,000,000 are expended for food. Are the people in those institutions being fed in the best ways, that is, in the ways that are most advantageous for them and least burdensome to the taxpayer?

This much is certain: The kinds of food materials, the method of storing, cooking and serving, the attractiveness of the table, and the cost are extremely variable. They vary not only in institutions for people of different classes, as of course they should, but also in different institutions for people of the same class. A costly diet is often unsatisfactory, and a more economical one is often highly acceptable. The diet of those institutions, like other features of their administration, is often criticised by the outside public. Are the criticisms just? The officers who have charge of the dietary management often feel themselves severely hampered in their efforts to provide proper and acceptable food for the people in their charge. Are we prepared to say that these complaints from earnest men and women, who are deeply interested in their work, are wholly without foundation? When we try to answer the criticisms from either source, we find ourselves without the needed standards for our judgment. Should not those standards be established on a reasonable basis of experience, investigation, technical skill and consideration for the welfare of the wards of the State?

Managers and friends of the public institutions are persuaded that important dietetic improvements are often called for and feasible. In a number of instances improvements have been made with great advantage to the employes, inmates and expense accounts of the institutions. Public interest in these subjects is increasing. The time is ripe for a more general and careful study of the subject and for more widespread and effective application of the results. In the home, on the farm, in the factory, in commercial establishments, on railroads, in municipal enterprises, indeed, almost everywhere, the results of scientific research are being put to practical use. It would seem that they ought to be capable of being utilized more than they now are in the dietetic manage-

ment of public and private institutions. Indeed, a great deal has been already done in this line, more especially in Europe, where much important information has been accumulated concerning the nutritive values of food, the laws of nutrition and the principles of dietetics. Until lately the most thorough scientific investigations in this general field have been those in Germany, though much has been done in other European countries. In England there has been a pronounced movement toward the establishment of revised and improved standard dietaries in prisons and workhouses, based upon the dietetic needs of the persons nourished.

Of late, and especially during the past ten years, there has been a large amount of experimental inquiry in this country regarding the food and nutrition of man. A large part of this inquiry has been conducted under authority of Congress, by the Department of Agriculture in coöperation with universities, colleges, technical schools, experiment stations, public institutions, charitable organizations, and social settlements in different parts of the United States, literally from Maine to California and from Minnesota to Alabama, though extensive and important contributions have come from other sources.

I think I may safely say that it has become possible to apply the methods and results of scientific inquiry in the dietetic management of public institutions just as well as in the management of agricultural, manufacturing and commercial enterprises.

In efforts toward improvement of dietaries, especially in large institutions, the following principles are to be considered: (1) A certain amount of food is necessary for the maintenance of the body. (2) This food requirement, which we may term the physiological demand, differs with different conditions of age, sex, health, muscular activity, environment, and the like. This is a matter upon which far too little stress has thus far been laid. (3) Dietary standards expressing the physiological demands are measured, not in quantities of food materials, as meat, bread, potatoes and the like, but in quantities of nutrients and energy. (4) It is practically impossible to store, cook and serve food without more or less shrinkage and waste; the

quantity of food lost in these two ways depends upon its quality and upon the methods of store-room, kitchen and dining-room management. (5) To meet the needs of an institution the food supply must be enough to cover not only the physiological need of its population, but also the actual shrinkage and waste. (6) If more food than necessary is supplied the kitchen and table wastes are likely to be increased, and there may be a tendency for the inmates of the institution to consume more food than is required to maintain them in health, thus entailing still further loss, to say nothing of the unnecessary tax upon the digestive system and the consequent injury to health; on the other hand, if the food supply is limited, or if the shrinkage and waste are large, officers and employes may be dissatisfied and the inmates may be underfed. (7) Pecuniary economy requires not only that there shall be a minimum of shrinkage and waste, but that the food shall be such as to furnish the needed nutriment at the lowest cost. (8) Hygienic economy requires not only that the food shall meet the physiological demands in respect to the quantities of nutrients and energy, but also that it shall be fitted to the digestive powers and other physiological peculiarities of the users; this is of special importance for invalids and young children. (9) The comfort and welfare of the users are promoted by making the food palatable and attractive. This is a point on which I am inclined to lay great stress.

I will not burden you with details, but you will perhaps permit me to refer to an inquiry which has been carried on in your own State, and with which some of you, I am sure, must be somewhat familiar. I refer to what has been done by your State Commission in Lunacy, which has made the most extensive inquiry for the improvement of dietaries and dietetic management of public institutions thus far attempted in the United States, or, indeed, in any other country, as far as I am aware. The enterprise was placed in my charge, and the results have been published in the tenth, eleventh and thirteenth annual reports of the Commission.

The primary object of the inquiry was to establish a proper dietary standard, based, in so far as possible, upon the physio-

logical needs of the hospital population. Other purposes were to study ways in which losses of food by shrinkage and waste in the store-room, kitchen and dining-room might be reduced; to render the prescribed ration more flexible and at times more economical by suggesting ways in which one food material may be replaced by another without changing the nutritive value of the diet; to devise methods, if practicable, by which more palatable dishes may be prepared without increased cost, or at less cost; and, finally, to see how the diet in general may be best adapted to the health and comfort of both patients and employees. In carrying out the inquiry, two considerations, the welfare of the people in the hospital and the interests of the taxpayers, at whose expense they are supported, have been paramount.

The plan was: First, to study the statistics of food supply in the hospitals and to find by weighing and measurement how much was actually eaten by the different classes of the population—in other words, to make dietary studies. Second, to employ skilled experts to examine into the best methods of kitchen and dining-room management, including, especially, the cooking of the food and serving it. Third, to devise experiments upon the proper feeding of patients of different classes. Fourth, to learn how the proper officers and employees, and especially the chefs and cooks may be best enabled and encouraged not only to carry out the methods for improvement suggested, but also to devise new methods themselves. You will find, if you care to look at the last report of the Commission in Lunacy, a great deal of detail with regard to all these things.

I wish to say, that in conducting these inquiries I was greatly encouraged by the spirit shown with regard to them. From members of the Commission, superintendents, physicians, stewards and chefs, I have received a great many suggestions of the highest value, and it is this very experience which led me to say that I believe that you have in the public institutions in your State a most excellent opportunity for the right kind of inquiry and most useful application of the results. I think, if I may be pardoned for saying so, that the dietary studies

were, on the whole, very satisfactory. They have brought an amount of information regarding the actual food consumption of different classes of the insane far in advance of anything elsewhere obtained. It is, however, more fitting that, inasmuch as I was personally connected with it, I should say less of the advantages than the disadvantages. There was one thing which I have regretted, and that is that more could not have been done by way of actual experiment to find out what are the best physiological standards, the most fitting kinds and amounts of food for the people of different classes and for the patients of different classes, in those institutions. I speak of this because such experimenting is possible and, in my judgment, necessary, and should be carried out in all of your public institutions. One phase of the inquiry, I think, was decidedly satisfactory, and I may say this because I had personally but little to do with it. At the St. Lawrence Hospital, with the hearty coöperation of the superintendent, Dr. Mabon, much attention was given by Miss Daniell and Miss Troy to the methods of cooking and kitchen and dining-room management, and I am sure that the officers of the institution agree with me that the results were very gratifying. I should be glad if there were time to tell you more about what was accomplished in these two directions. What I have most to regret is that the circumstances did not permit the carrying out of feeding experiments such as are needed to establish proper physiological standards, and I very much wish that there might have been more opportunity to inquire into the methods for economizing in the purchase and especially the use of the food and for making it more acceptable to the palate and to the eye when put upon the table.

Dr. A. W. Hurd, superintendent of the Buffalo State Hospital for the Insane, has favored me with an account of some things which he has observed in his own institution during the past three years, as an outcome of the inquiries above referred to.

At the outset, the attention of officers and employes was directed to the amount of waste, and also to the possibilities of improvement of some of the details of the cooking and serv-

ing of food. The books of the hospital show a very material reduction in the per capita cost of the food since the beginning of the investigations. This saving, as based upon the per capita cost of the first year, is estimated by Dr. Hurd as 13.7 per cent. What makes this reduction the more striking is the fact that it has been effected notwithstanding a material advance in the price of a considerable number of the food materials. At the same time there has been an improvement in the diet as a whole. One feature has been the addition to the diet of the attendants of so-called "extras," which include fried ham, cold meat,\*muffins, beef hash, coffee cake, potatoes, fried eggs, toast, fruit sauce, buns, etc. The diet for the inmates is such as may be ordinarily found in a well-managed institution.

Dr. Hurd, in speaking of the improved methods in the hospital, says that "while we can not say that all this is due entirely to the food investigations, and while some of it is due to care and vigilance in buying, yet we think a great deal of it is attributable to the extra care and attention which have been paid to the cooking, distributing, service, and prevention of waste which are the outcome of the investigations."

Of the share of the hospital in the inquiry, Dr. Hurd says: "The coöperation in this work has not been a burden or drag on the institution, but has, we think, resulted in a direct benefit to the dietary of the inmates, the satisfaction and contentment of all concerned, and has been a marked source of economy."

A large part of the saving in cost, while the diet has been improved, Dr. Hurd attributes to the reduction in the waste of food.

The Commission in Lunacy has stated the advantages derived from the inquiry, in an official summary, from which the following is taken:

As a result of this special work, we have now a definite idea of some of the good that has been accomplished, and we believe we are justified in expressing the following views:

"First. The most important point has been the improvement in the food service, and this has been manifested in various ways. Under the stimulating influence of the work as con-

ducted, the chefs and cooks have made a greater effort than ever before to prepare food in a more palatable form and in greater variety, with the effect of reducing the dining-room waste, as well as the kitchen waste, and thus making a saving in dollars and cents.

"Second. We have found that economy results from using a larger variety of foods and foods that are better adapted to the various seasons of the year.

"Third. With a knowledge of food values one can substitute various articles in the hospital dietary and thus promote economy. For instance, during the winter season, when eggs are expensive and sometimes poor, they can be omitted from the cooked dishes, and at the same time skimmed milk from a creamery, when it is available, can be used in certain proportions in cooking.

"Fourth. A comparative decrease in the cost of food has taken place, and this has not been due to the cutting down of food supplies, but rather as a result of care in utilizing every article that goes into the kitchen. One of the greatest savings came from the judicious use of left-over food. \* \* \* We find that a comparison of food supplies as paid for in estimate No. 3, shows (in one of the hospitals) a yearly per capita reduction of \$2.19, which, being multiplied by the average population for the year ending September 30, 1900, namely, 1,565.5, shows a total saving of \$3,417. \* \* \* This in spite of the fact that a great many articles of food were higher in price than they were during the preceding year."

I have said that the proper ration allowance for a public institution must be such as to cover not only the physiological demand, but also the necessary shrinkage and waste of food materials. By these latter terms, or by the more general and technical term of waste, I mean the loss of food materials in storage, in handling, and by decay or otherwise between the time of purchase and the time when the food is brought into the kitchen, and also the portions of the edible material of the food which are lost in preparing the food for the table, and which are otherwise left uneaten, and may be called the kitchen or dining-room waste. This so-called waste is an important mat-

ter. More or less of it is unavoidable. Did you ever notice how somehow or other your money income will fritter away if you are not careful about it? The same is the case with food. When one examines into the subject carefully, it is surprising to see in how many ways waste may occur, not only in public institutions but in private families. In studies of household dietaries in different parts of the United States where observations have been made, the amounts of waste were found to vary from practically nothing to 10 per cent. of the food. In individual cases, especially boarding houses, it sometimes reached 20 per cent. or more.

In public institutions, the tendency to waste is larger and it is much harder to avoid. The dietary studies in the New York hospitals implied that at the time when the studies began the average loss of food in this way amounted to more than one-fourth, indeed, in some cases nearly one-third, of the total amount of food purchased. That is to say, that only two-thirds or three-fourths of the actual nutriment of the food was utilized, except in so far as the table and kitchen wastes were fed to animals. It may be that these estimates were not entirely correct, but they can hardly be very far out of the way.

Now, these institutions were well-managed. I believe that this waste of food was no larger than is entirely natural unless specific attention is given to this particular subject. As soon as the facts were actually observed steps were taken to reduce the waste, and this resulted in marked pecuniary saving. What was wanted was simply to have the actual facts brought out. The people in authority were quick to note them, and the improvements followed very naturally.

One of the notable changes in our great business enterprises is the introduction of methods of economy in details. With the severe competition of the present time this makes the difference between profit and loss in very many cases. Exactly the same principle applies in the dietary management of public institutions. Lest I may be misunderstood, permit me to repeat that some waste is unavoidable, and that, even with the best intentions, it may be very large unless especial care is given to the subject. I believe it would be wrong to reproach

the managers of the institutions because this waste occurs. It can be reduced, and in my judgment ought to be reduced, but the only way to reduce it is by giving especial attention to the subject, by providing the necessary equipment in the store-room and kitchen and the dining-room and, what is most important, by employing experts to manage and competent help to do the work. I noted one of the statements of your chairman: "Can we expect success without special training for the service?" Here you certainly cannot. One of the things that I wish to plead for, one of the things I came here for, was to ask if something could not be done in the institutions of this State toward the training of experts in dietetics. I have had opportunity a good many times to talk with the people who are inside and know, and the one thing that I hear most often, not only in New York, but elsewhere, is exactly what I have just said, and I believe it is right. It does not pay to "save at the spigot and waste at the bung-hole." In order to save a little in salaries, it does not pay to employ cheap cooks and get along without competent persons who understand dietary management. Above all things, it would be wrong in providing for the food supply of a public institution to bring the quantity down to the physiological demand. The waste will vary with the equipment and the management, and a reduction in food supply, if carried too far, means insufficient nourishment. Let the reductions go parallel with the administrative economy, and make that administrative economy possible by proper examination into the matter, and by providing especially trained and skilful chefs or other heads of the food departments, and well trained cooks and other help.

But what has appealed to me much more strongly than the pecuniary side of this question is the humanitarian considerations. These should be paramount. I wish there were time to dwell more fully upon this subject. Some of the inmates of our public institutions are there for punishment, but that is not true with all or most. That a large share of them are there, and you and I are not, is not due wholly to their fault or our virtue. We are responsible for those who are there. It is our duty to do all that we can to make them comfortable

and happy, and the average taxpayer and the average legislator are not so destitute of human sympathy as not to be willing to pay what is needed for such kindly care.

You have lately been putting especially trained women at the head of the dietary management of a number of the public institutions in your State. Your chairman mentioned a case in his most excellent address just now, and showed the great advantage of such expert service. Indeed, I am inclined to think that a new profession is opening up for women in this general line. I have asked several of these excellent women who have had experience in public institutions in the State of New York to tell me some of the conclusions they have reached. One of them—I wish I were at liberty to tell you her name—says:

“There is no factor in their environment that patients, as a rule, know so much about, and take so much pleasure and interest in, as their food. Simple and rough clothing, and the plainest of rooms and general appointments do not cause the comment and dissatisfaction among patients in any way as does a poor meal. Only a few patients are indifferent to their food; to most of them a good meal gives the greatest pleasure they have. Three times a day there is interruption in the monotony of their life. How pleasant can we make it?”

Another one pleads most justly that a clean and well equipped kitchen and healthful and attractively served food on the table are just as much needed in a hospital as a solarium. The head of the Department of Charities in one of your large cities was telling me the other day about his experience. He said that once in a while there comes an order to cut down expenses and generally the cut begins with the food, and that is very apt to mean depriving the inmates of what they actually need.

I venture to call your attention to a statement lately made by a lady whose experience has been in another state, and one which especially prides itself upon its care of its public institutions. This lady, who has had large experience in some of those institutions, and is greatly respected for what she has done, insists upon five kinds of improvement in dietary man-

agement which she thinks are needed in her own state. She says, in substance:

First. There should be a scientifically trained person in charge, and that person should not be handicapped by officials who have little knowledge of dietetics.

Second. Cooks should be better trained and better paid.

Third. The food should be so prepared as to be as appetizing and palatable as possible.

Fourth. There should be more variety in the food.

Fifth. As regards food and cooking, there should be a more equitable division of expense between the provisions made for officers, employes and inmates.

To resume: What I would suggest is this:

First. That steps be taken for a more thorough inquiry into the food and dietetic management of the public institutions of your State.

Second. That experts be employed—and that means in most cases they must be trained for the purpose—to look into the different phases of the subject, find how improvements may be made, and be enabled to make them.

Third. That to this end more attention be given to store-room, kitchen and dining-room equipment, and the economical purchase and handling of food, to the cooking of the food and putting it on the table in such way as to make it not only nourishing and palatable, but attractive, and that not only the experts and managers, but the help, be paid enough to secure the kind of service necessary for such improvement.

In order to establish a thoroughly satisfactory dietary standard, it will be necessary to do two things. One is to make actual feeding experiments with people of different classes, in order to find just what kinds and amounts of food and of nutritive ingredients are really best adapted to their needs. Such experiments can be carried out in public institutions without any discomfort or disadvantage whatever to the inmates. They will, indeed, be somewhat costly. I think the best way to manage the enterprise would be to go about it rather slowly and gradually, training a number of competent

men and women to conduct the experiments, while the results are carefully watched. In this way it will be possible to find what otherwise no physiologist can tell us, as to what are the proper physiological standards, that is, what materials best meet the actual demands of the people of different classes, men, women and children, in health and in different forms of disease, and under different conditions of work, rest, past experience and present environments.

Another thing to do is to look after the cooking and serving of the food so as to make the most palatable and nutritious dishes, and put them on the table in the most attractive way, while reducing the cost to a minimum. This means, pardon me if I speak plainly, a great deal more attention to this particular subject, the employment of experts and trained cooks and other help, and greater encouragement and incentive to improvement than is found in all public institutions.

You have already made a most excellent beginning in these ways in a number of public institutions, as has been done in other states. I wish you could have been with me as I have gone around among the hospitals for the insane and talked with some of the thoroughly earnest and capable superintendents, physicians and other officers, including stewards and chefs, and I wish it were permissible for me to repeat to you what has been said to me time and again, not only by them, but by the women whom you have wisely begun to put in charge of this branch of the management of some of these establishments—women who have the gift and the desire to render the most useful service, who have qualified themselves by special training, and are entering upon this profession with a zeal and skill and an ambition which the State of New York cannot afford to fail to recognize. They have told me of their efforts, their successes and their discouragements, just as the superintendents and other officers have done. If you want to know what they say, talk with them yourselves. Then I believe you will be ready to help them, and to insist upon a regime in your own State which will insure their best encouragement.

## DISCUSSION ON DIETARIES FOR STATE INSTITUTIONS.

The discussion was opened by Robert W. Hill, inspector State Board of Charities, Albany.

The paper to which we have listened emphasizes the importance of a study of dietetics. To those who are familiar with the conditions prevailing in public institutions, it will go without contradiction that too much study of this subject is hardly possible. Not only are our public institutions interested in proper dietaries but all the organizations maintained by the contributions of the charitable are interested. In a broad way it may be said that there is not an institution devoted to the care of individuals which may not be helped by the final conclusions of the superintendents of institutions and the scientists who for many years have been devoting their time to investigations of the food problem.

In this Conference, which deals with charities, both public and private, this discussion must necessarily be limited to the dietetics of public institutions, and yet, from what has been said of the nutritive needs of individuals, private charitable institutions will be interested, and may receive a direct benefit from any enunciation of general principles.

In any discussion of dietetics, two things must be borne in mind. First, the personal or rather individual welfare of the inmates of institutions. As there are over 100,000 inmates in the public institutions of the State of New York, the personal welfare of such a vast number must be considered of prime importance, and any discussion which fails to recognize this to the fullest extent will be of little value.

Second. The economics involved. As the State of New York, through its various political divisions, expends over six millions of dollars for food alone, the economics of this matter of diet in public institutions are of great importance. It is all very well for us to say, as we theorize, that the matter of dollars and cents must be subordinate to the more important welfare of the individual. It is true that the State expects humane treatment, and will not be satisfied with less than a liberal dietary for its dependents; but while this is conceded we have no right to forget the fact that back of the institutions are the taxpayers

of the commonwealth, and that they are entitled to consideration when such an enormous sum as \$6,000,000 is to be spent. For their sake proper economy must go hand in hand with humanity in the management of dietaries in public institutions; hence this food problem must be discussed from a standpoint which recognizes public rights, as well as the needs of the inmates.

Taking up the first division of the subject, that is, dietary standards in relation to the personal welfare of the inmates of institutions, we have to consider, first, what are the essential requirements of the individuals for whom food supplies are provided. Speaking generally, and without regard to the classification of the population of institutions, it may be asserted that the regular allowances of food must cover two great needs of the individual. One is, the physical development or natural growth, the other is, the expenditure of energy occasioned by the daily demands or employments.

In some institutions the need of provision for development or natural growth is reduced to a minimum because the population has passed the period when growth and development are taking place. The only development is that incident to advancing years, decay — not growth — and for this the ordinary diet does not need any special compensating provisions. This is true generally of the almshouse population.

In other institutions, such as schools and asylums for the young, where the population is composed of growing children and youth, the dietary standard must provide for the development of the body and mind. This will be its chief function, and the food supply therefore should be of a character which will encourage and facilitate natural growth and development. If in the supplies of food there be any shortage of the elements required to enable this development to proceed properly and harmoniously, the consequences will be harmful in the highest degree; whereas, if there be too great a supply of the elements necessary to bodily development there is little danger of serious ultimate harm, for the human mechanism is of such character that it will dispose of surplusage as it does of all other waste products ingested into the system.

The second great function of food is the supply of energy, and in all institutions devoted to the care of adult populations, where the growth of the body has been completed, and where there must be employment of the productive power of the population, food should be supplied in quantity and of character which will furnish sufficient energy to enable the population to carry on its regular work. In the arrangement of diet for the production of energy it must be borne in mind that the food which can be most readily transformed into energy, food which makes the least demand upon the system for its transmutation, is theoretically the best food to furnish such population. But it has been found by sad experience that theory does not always go side by side with practice, and that the likes and dislikes of individuals have much to do with the ultimate value of food. Long ago it was said that personal taste is not to be disputed, and this remains as true in public institutions as outside. The emotions play a large part in fixing the final value of food. Its digestion, its retention even, and its sustaining quality are more or less influenced by the emotions excited at the time of its ingestion.

The fact that the digestive process begins with the taking in of food was known to the ancients, but the discovery that food placed in the stomach without the knowledge of the individual will lie an inert mass for hours, and may ultimately decompose before any digestive process be started, is modern. This is only corroborative of the old adage that "the preference of the individual is not to be ignored." Hence the consideration of individual appetite, or personal preferences, will not be out of place in any determination of the dietaries of our public institutions.

The test tube may serve to fix a standard in the laboratory, and determine the digestibility of particular forms of food, but in the final determination of quantity as well as of quality the human stomach must settle the question.

One great trouble with all the so-called dietary standards is that they prescribe a certain fixed amount of the nutritive elements of food, and insist, because this given quantity under certain conditions is productive of desired results, that therefore

these quantities shall be the standards in determining the general diet, and then apply them to public institutions. It has been found by experience, however, that no one dietetic standard is entirely satisfactory either in or out of institutions.

The army has studied the ration question in this country, as well as have the armies in foreign countries, in the effort to find a ration which shall contain, in compact form, the nutritive elements necessary for the active life of the soldiers in the field; but the measure of success is, after all that can be said in favor of the German field ration, and the last tested emergency ration of our own army, somewhat doubtful. The chemical combinations seem all right, but there is more or less rebellion by the stomach. In public institutions dietetic standards have been given somewhat of a trial, but they are still unsettled.

In the hospitals for the insane the standard suggested in 1893, by Dr. Flint, has been changed and modified in some particular with almost each succeeding year. To-day it differs materially from its form of ten years ago, and probably the standard adopted for the years to come will differ as much from that of the present time. Everywhere it has been found that fixed standards are unjust to individuals. This was recognized by the Flint ration, which made a difference of 10 per cent. between male and female patients, and also a further difference of 25 per cent. between workers and the ordinary patients. The same difference in need is recognized in every other ration. Special demands require special consideration, and therefore any standard which is so fixed and unyielding as not to give consideration to individual needs must do an injustice.

This, then, leads to the consideration of the difference in the character of the population of public institutions. All are not alike. It is impossible so to classify this population that a single standard ration will be satisfactory. We have two classes of hospitals. There are hospitals for the insane, with their thousands upon thousands of patients. These may be grouped into sections for which a common dietary is practicable, but when you take the general hospital, where there must be

individual treatment, the common standard is inadvisable. In the general hospital special diet is the feature, and it must so remain.

While we have no distinctively general hospital maintained by the State, we have hospitals of this character maintained by municipalities and counties, and an inmate population of a character approximate to that of the general hospital in such institutions as the epileptic colony at Sonyea.

Then, too, we have the prisons, whose population must be remembered in any discussion of the dietary. An examination of the food supplied in different states to the prisoners reveals wide fluctuations both in quantity, character and quality, and, when we remember that in this State there are prisons for our male offenders and reformatories for women, it will be apparent that one standard of dietary cannot be satisfactory for both.

Again, we must consider the asylums, the schools and the public homes, remembering in the determination of a dietetic standard, that the character of the population of these three classes of institutions is radically different. As has been stated before, the schools and the orphan asylums represent the growing population, for whom a diet must be provided liberal in all the elements that assure growth and bodily and mental development. In the custodial asylums and in the public homes and almshouses, the necessity for this kind of food exists in only a minor degree, but it does not follow for this reason that there should be any illiberality in fixing the standard. The inmates of these institutions are entitled to receive liberal treatment, and, as far as possible, should be made contented and happy by the diet arrangement.

Thus far we have considered only the relation of the diet to the personal welfare and happiness of the population of our institutions. We must not forget, however, the second element in the problem, that is, the economics which are involved. The State of New York spending for its dependents, as it does, over \$6,000,000 for food alone, is entitled to be protected from all unnecessary waste, and any examination of public institutions will reveal the fact that the annual cost of the waste is very

great. If the waste amounts to only 1 per cent. of the entire food supply, the value of this waste is \$60,000 per year; but those who are familiar with public institutions know that in many of them the annual waste is much more than 1 per cent., reaching probably in some instances as high as 10 per cent. The prevention of this should enlist the best efforts of all who have the oversight of such institutions, but it will not do to cut the dietary 10 per cent. because some institutions permit such waste.

In the same direction of economy, the importance of cookery must hold a large place in the proper arrangement of dietaries. The cooking and service of the food has much to do with making it digestible. If it be improperly cooked, or if it be served in a repulsive way, it might almost as well be thrown out at first, as the most of it will ultimately find its way into the general waste; hence the kitchen equipment, and the arrangement of the dining-room to facilitate proper service, must be studied in connection with the purchase, supply and preparation of food. That institution will probably have the best results for the expenditure of money for provisions which has the best equipped kitchens and dining-rooms and the most careful and competent cooks. This suggests the possibility of improvements in this direction. These improvements can be made sometimes in the quality of the food purchased for our public institutions. This does not mean a greater expense to be incurred through a change in quality, but rather a more careful selection so as to secure standard articles, and, where possible, a combination in the matter of purchases so as to secure economies which will enable a selection of better qualities where these are desirable.

The improvement in the matter of cooking and service is one which can be accomplished through closer supervision and more constant attention to this particular matter. Too much is left to the initiative of the cooks and attendants. They are not always under sufficient supervision. They grow careless, trusting to immunity from observation, and, in consequence, the inmates have unpalatable food. Some food disgustingly unclean has been observed in institutions, but such a thing could not

continue long where close, conscientious supervision of the kitchen is exercised.

It is possible also to improve the variety of the food so as to prevent such uniformity in diet as in the end will destroy relish and appetite. This greater variety may be secured without any great addition to the expense by careful attention to the growth of vegetables and to a choice of forms of food which can be substituted for the more common articles, and which will yield the nutritive results accompanied by greater satisfaction to the inmates.

In this same connection an improvement can be made if there be greater liberality in the allowance of special seasonable foods. In many institutions the unvarying round of the winter months is carried into the summer season. When the fresh fruits of summer and fall should be incorporated in the weekly dietary the menu still provides the dried fruits of winter and spring or none at all. Especially is an allowance of fresh fruit necessary for the growing population in schools and asylums, but while it is absolutely essential to the health of persons of this class in public institutions, it is very gratifying and conducive to health to have a liberal allowance of fruit for the adult inmates of other institutions.

The final suggestion made by Professor Atwater is one with which I do not find myself in agreement. The training of experts for the service of the State is the province of the school and the university except so far as experience in actual work later adds to the training and perfects the powers. While we need dietetic experts, these should be secured through the regular channels, as our other professional experts are secured. To turn the kitchen and dining-rooms into training schools will be likely to result in harm, and at any rate cannot be expected to promote direct efficiency, as much of the work would have to be experimental in character. Then, too, the proposition to educate professional experts at the expense of the State is open to objections which are apparent to all. The knowledge of dietetics should be a part of the equipment of all superintendents of institutions, and this equipment ought to be a part of the antecedent training essential to appoint-

ment. Of course some study of dietetics in its relation to the preparation of food for the table is incidental to the work of the kitchen, and becomes more and more valuable through experience of the necessities of the institution. In this case it is experience that counts rather than technical knowledge.

In conclusion, the whole matter may be summed up in a single sentence. Any dietary that fails to meet the natural desires of the population of the institution should be revised, and in the arrangement of dietaries for public institutions the comfort and satisfaction of the inmates should be kept in mind, as well as the economics involved.

The discussion was interrupted at this point by Mr. Mills, of the State Prison Commission, who asked permission to address the Conference on a question of privilege, in the following words:

MR. MILLS.—Representing the prison department, I rise to a question of privilege and to ask for three or four minutes at any time that you may see fit to give it, that the prison department may present some facts in relation to the industrial organization of the prison system. In some discussion that came up this morning while no representative of the prison department was here, certain statements were made to which we would like to reply.

Chairman WOOD.—At the conclusion of the next paper, an opportunity will be given for the presentation of the matter just referred to.

Discussion on Professor Atwater's paper was then resumed.

DR. LOCKE, Syracuse.—I have only a few words to say after listening to Professor Atwater's paper, because all the recommendations he makes are ones which have interested me so much. I have to make only one other plea, and I shall continue to make that plea as long as possible until it may be recognized, and that is the importance of finding out more about the effects of the dietary. Taking the dietary, with which many of us are familiar, in most of these discussions we speak of the amount of food which is offered a man, and not the food which the person has eaten. In other words, we have spoken of

the coal which is to be put in this engine. We put in coal, a certain quantity, we put it in so frequently, we estimate the amount of energy we should get out of it, but we have not examined the results, we haven't the ashes, we do not know the force and power which we obtain from the amount of fuel which has been consumed. That is one of the things Professor Atwater has mentioned when he speaks of further investigation. It is not what we give one of these individuals — I speak more particularly in regard to inmates of insane asylums — that is not all. It is what he does with it, and what it does to him. That is the point. The greatest advance which is now being made in the study of mental diseases and nervous diseases is being made along the so-called lines of antitoxines. That is, that the production or causation of nervous diseases, mental diseases, diseases of the cerebro and spinal diseases are due to poisons which are generated in the body itself by the individual, acting possibly on an individual predisposed or susceptible to these poisons. Now, the point I want to make is this: That we must study more carefully the results, what the various conditions are, how these individuals care for the food which we give them, granting that we give them the proper food. Now, if we do that — we come to the economic side — our institutions will not be custodial, they will be curative. If it will increase the percentage of our cures, if we reduce the poisons, if we increase the power and ability of recovery through feeding the patients proper food, we shall increase our cures, we shall increase our discharges from the institutions and we shall save money, and I believe that the amount of money saved by reason of the increased percentage of cures and discharges would more than offset the cost of these individuals that would be necessary, the additional number of employes that would be necessary to carry out these investigations. Let me be a little specific. It takes time to do this experimenting. We give so much fuel to one of these individuals. Now, the experimenting must be done on the spot; it cannot be sent to a central laboratory, it must be done in the institution. We feed this individual so much fuel. We must find out exactly if the output corresponds to the normal; and

out if he is undereating or overeating; find out if the food he eats is the source of the difficulty. If it is, we should find it out as far as possible and correct it. Now, all of that takes time, it takes many chemical analyses and observation of individuals through an extended period. If that is to be done we must have men to do it. If you ask any member of a board of superintendents, any member of a medical institution, he will say, "We can't do it, doctor; we haven't the time; we can't do it." I do not want to exceed my five minutes, but if I can only impress this one thing on you. I was talking to Dr. ——— a little while ago and I said in talking, "Doctor, what is your idea in your work—you are doing the best work up there—what is your idea in regard to these antitoxines and the effect of these poisons within the body?" "Why," he said, "it is all there is, it is all there is in our curable cases, that is what does the most good." He said, "The old method of treatment is like having a nail in your foot. You can plaster it, you can put on dressings and keep the flesh clean, but it will never get well until you pull out the nail." So if we eliminate these poisons that are the products of incomplete, deficient digestion, we shall increase our cures, increase our discharges, and save money in that way, and at the same time have better professional assistance.

Secretary EDWARD T. DEVINE, New York.—Prof. Atwater's paper has recalled a very interesting conversation between the writer of the paper and myself some eight months ago when we were both guests in the capital city of Cuba, and at the risk of appearing to be a little discourteous to a visitor from another state and a professor in a university visiting among charitable people, I should like here in public to file a caveat. We had a private conversation, and some parts of that conversation may even have partaken a little of the warmth of the tamales we had at our breakfast. Now, if this address were one delivered by a charity worker to an audience of university professors it would seem to me thoroughly and altogether admirable. It is, as I understand it, a plea for research, it is a plea for scientific knowledge concerning food supplies and what they will do in practice. Mr. Atwater has

said he wished there were time for him to tell us some of the things he saw on his round of the State hospitals for the insane, that he wishes there had been opportunity for research, time for the Commission in Lunacy to find out somewhat more experimentally as to precisely what particular diets were suited to each particular class of inmates in the State hospitals for the insane. I devoutly echo both of these wishes. At the same time it is to the laboratory of the university after all we must look for scientific research into these subjects. If I may in making that point refer to an illustration which the writer of the paper made himself, we do not expect the bridge builder to stop, when he is putting up a bridge for which we are in a hurry, to make tests by which he shall determine the carrying power of different materials. We expect that to be done in the physical laboratory. We expect the man when he enters upon the task already to know it. It seems to me the people in our charitable institutions and hospitals who are caring for people who are public dependents on the limited appropriation which it is possible to get from the taxpayers for this purpose must look to such sources as I have named for the scientific information they need, and that they must come to their task prepared, if possible, by previous training such as the chairman referred to in his report, prepared to do their work with as much efficiency as the bridge builder must have in order to be prepared to build the bridge. In other words the financial burden of the research that is required must be met by the universities.

Hon. HOMER FOLKS, Commissioner of Charities, New York City.—Having confronted the practical point of view, the necessity of buying food supplies, I must confess to a great deal of disappointment at finding that the dietary standards thus far formulated are practically none of them in shape to be of immediate use. That is to say, they don't indicate the food values of the different forms of food in which they have to be purchased, but only a certain ideal. Ideals are all right, but it would be of practical importance to interpret these in terms that would go to the market.

Now, secondly, I wish to suggest, in the absence of having a dietary standard which seems to me to be workable, a plan which I should like to see tested in one particular by the charities department. That is the dietary standard with which we are all familiar in our own household, where we eat as much as we like. I am not sure, but after all that comes nearer than any other, to being the proper dietary standard for an institution. I am not sure but that if we served food to the inmates of public institutions in smaller allowances and gave them as much as they wished we might come nearer the right thing than by trying to measure it. That is what we are doing with one important article of diet, namely, bread, and we haven't found our consumption increased, but rather diminished.

Chairman Wood.—Prof. Atwater's statement that we must look to the various institutions for light upon this question, and Mr. Devine's statement that we must look to the universities for a solution of this question, simply illustrates how interdependent are science and practical work. It is only by combining the two, working hand in hand, we can get the desired light upon this subject.

The time has so far advanced it will be necessary for us to proceed immediately with the next subject upon the program, "Uniform System of Parole for State Institutions of Similar Character," by Frederic Almy, Secretary Charity Organization Society, Buffalo:

#### UNIFORM SYSTEM OF PAROLE FOR STATE INSTITUTIONS OF SIMILAR CHARACTER.

I have accepted the subject of uniform parole, but to my mind anything like uniform parole either in State institutions of similar character, or within the walls of a single institution, is an abomination and an absurdity. It is argued that it is an injustice that a thief or a harlot on one side of a geographical line may hope for parole in one year, while a similar case on the other side of that line is confined for two years. Is it injustice that a typhoid patient in one hospital may be kept three months, while under another physician in another hospital another typhoid patient is kept for six?

If in all state hospitals, or if in any one hospital, there was one fixed term for diphtheria, another for measles and another for lock-jaw, the folly would be obvious. And if in any hospital all patients, whatever their diseases, were kept for three years, or for two years and six months only if they responded well to treatment, would it not be thought strange? "O wonderful, wonderful and most wonderful wonderful, and after that out of all whooping!" says Celia to Rosalind; and yet things not wholly unlike this are happening to-day. Uniform parole in hospitals is, of course, too preposterous for consideration. Each patient is discharged when the doctor says he is cured, and not before; and the term of detention depends not only upon the disease, but upon the previous constitution and habits of the patient, and upon the conditions to which he will return. A patient might be returned to a good home and good food where it would be criminal to release the same patient to a home which is unhealthful or where he would have no proper care.

It is not to be supposed that diseases of character can be treated with more rigid uniformity than bodily diseases. The suggestion that the several reformatories of similar type should agree upon the same minimum term of imprisonment, and should adopt a uniform marking system, seems to me to rest upon the old theory that imprisonment is instituted for punishment.

Punitive penology is becoming obsolete, and in crime, as in disease, we study now only prevention and cure. We now use antiseptics to prevent, and restoratives to cure, instead of drugs which restrain and paralyze the functions. I return to my text of a year ago in this Conference, that character is better formed by liberty than by force, and by individuality than by uniformity. Superintendents are apt to rest upon fixed terms, for comfortable reasons, but there is both moral economy and financial economy in expediting the return of prisoners to real life in each individual instance upon its own facts. More probation before imprisonment, more parole after imprisonment, and the least possible imprisonment, is a very good recipe for forming character, and character in criminals is the chief thing which now concerns us.

The indeterminate sentence was inaugurated in this state over twenty years ago, and it is now in operation in over half the states of the Union. It is an accepted principle, and to introduce a uniform minimum term of imprisonment, or uniformity of parole, would be a step backward. The fixed term, with a fixed reduction for good behavior, does, of course, induce good behavior, but mere good behavior means little. The habitual criminal is said to be more orderly in prison than a first offender. This mere conformity with prison rules gets its reward, but the lad who goes to Rochester, for instance, knowing that it depends upon himself whether he stays one year or ten, has a stronger incentive toward reformation. We have in such a case the patient who wants to get well, and every physician knows what that means. The greatest offender may often have the strongest will power, and this can often be turned toward reformation. To deal with human character requires the most personal, individual treatment, and Procrustean forms are fatal.

To have the time for parole indefinite leads, of course, to charges of favoritism by superintendents, to petitions to the board of managers, and to many undesirable outside influences, which increase the difficulties of administration, but reformatories are not intended for the ease of those who operate them. General Brinkerhoff goes so far as to advocate a uniform rule that applications to boards for parole should be prohibited. He says: "A parole ought to be a right which the prisoner has earned by good conduct, and a prisoner without a friend on earth outside should receive the same recognition as the son of a king or president, and that, too, without expense for lawyers or outside influences."

The difficulty of deciding in each case when a prisoner is fit for parole can hardly be exaggerated. The Hon. Charlton T. Lewis spoke strongly on this at the Hartford Prison Congress in 1899: "Where is the wisdom, the knowledge of hearts, the power to read character, the insight into motive, sincerity, strength of will, the eye to pierce all disguises, to detect hypocrisy, to recognize manliness, to distinguish conscience and honest purpose from pretense and cunning? \* \* \* I confess that

the decision when to terminate the indeterminate sentence in each individual case is one of the most difficult which can be imposed upon the human mind. To make it always without error is not in the power of any man or body of men. \* \* \* It is a fearful necessity that is thrown upon the state to exercise such a prerogative through fallible agents." Under any system, however, some one must determine the length of imprisonment, and, as Mr. Lewis points out, this is better done by the reformatory superintendent than by the judge. "If those," he says, "who are trained in the work of searching the character, stimulating the better motives and watching for the growth of responsibility and conscience, who are in daily, hourly intercourse with their wards, for the sole purpose of preparing them to be free, may still be deceived in them, what shall we say of the judge who sees the prisoner for an hour or a day at his bar, and whose knowledge of him is practically limited to the single act of which he is accused?"

The only possible answer is that judges are apt to be men of better judgment and larger mental calibre than superintendents, and even this answer has little weight in a state where judges are chosen by popular vote and superintendents by competitive test. The difficulty but emphasizes the contention of our chairman, that all who are charged with the most delicate and difficult responsibility of determining parole should have some better training than the dear school of experience. The first trained nurses in America were graduated in New York hardly twenty-five years ago, in 1875, and at that time the hard work at Bellevue Hospital in New York was done by women committed for drunkenness. I make the prediction that in ten years the more responsible employes of reformatories and prisons in this state will, as a rule, have had some special academic training. Are moral hospitals less important than physical ones? "What a piece of work is a man!" cries Hamlet to the players. And yet, says the same Hamlet to players of another sort: "You would play upon me; you would seem to know my stops; \* \* \* and there is much music, excellent voice in this little organ; yet you cannot make it speak. S'blood, do you think I can easier be played on than a pipe?" When

musicians, when nurses, when teachers need no training, then, and then only, can reformers dispense with it. It is not yet generally understood that penology offers as useful a profession for the welfare of mankind as education or medicine.

That criminals are reformable is the testimony of all who have tried to reform them; in fact, the success usually exceeds expectation. Competent judges say that in the best reformatories 70 per cent. graduate to respectable citizenship. When we consider the huge cost of crime the question is not whether we can afford to undertake prison reforms, but whether we can possibly afford not to. A late figure (1899) estimates the annual cost, in Massachusetts only, for police protection against criminals, for police courts and for prisons at \$5,000,000. Governments ordinarily spend more on account of crime than for education. Any effective outlay to reduce crime is real economy, but the cause of crime is ordinarily some fault of character, and to lift character in others requires character in the lifter. Men or women who lack strength of character cannot give it to others. The mere custodian can guard character from outside influences, and the industrial, educational and religious work in reformatories has a powerful effect, but so far as the personnel of reformatory agencies is concerned the probation officer and the parole officer require higher qualities than the custodial officer, important as the latter is. For the state to employ second-rate ability for any of this work is as unwise and as uneconomical as it would be in the case of disease. Any turnkey can turn a key, as his name implies, but the superintendent of a modern prison is as far removed from a turnkey as a modern librarian is from the old style custodian of books. The best physicians and nurses are proud to serve in our hospitals. The time will come when ability and devotion will seek also for opportunities in reformatory work.

I have said that the probation officer and the parole officer have a more delicate task than the superintendent. The superintendent must have executive and administrative ability, but in any large institution the education of head, hand and heart within the walls counts for almost as much as the personality of the superintendent and of the assistants. It is while the

criminal is at large, either on probation with a hope to escape prison, or on parole with the hope not to go back to prison, that his efforts at self-control need to be supported by rare love and wisdom. The ideal probation or parole officer needs qualities which are almost Christ-like, and a patience almost divine.

Penology has made hardly more than a beginning in its use of probation and parole. The use of the indeterminate sentence, and of un-uniformity as opposed to uniformity of parole is everywhere increasing. Even the best reformatory gives something of the stigma of a "jail-bird," and it gives also undesirable associations with other evil-doers. The confinement should be the shortest with which the institution feels that it can guarantee the character turned out against ordinary wear and tear.

This is no pronouncement in favor of short-term sentences, for these are the bane of reformers. It seems unfortunate that at the women's reformatories of this state the maximum term was reduced from five to three years, but the disposition towards a uniformly long term of detention made judges dread to sentence a young girl to what was sure to be a long confinement. The mere shock of leaving home is sometimes sufficient, and if the judges feel that every effort will be made to expedite a release, duly safeguarded, they will commit more freely. In determining the time of parole, however, more than the gravity of the offense and the conduct in the institution are to be considered. The antecedents and the personality of each individual, important as they are, are hardly so important as the character of the family and friends into which the prisoner will go. Magistrates are especially reluctant to commit young girls, and when finally committed the immorality is usually so pronounced that the full term of treatment provided in the reformatory is needed in order to set character, but it is never to be forgotten that confinement *per se* is bad. It is only the influences that accompany confinement which justify it.

Superintendents of reformatories and of orphan asylums alike fear to let go and to trust their charges to the temptations of the outside world, which all alike must meet, or live caged.

No doubt the education in books, in trades and in discipline, which boys and girls get in a modern reformatory, is excellent for all of them, but if all the boys and girls outside who would be improved by such opportunities were to be confined our reformatories could not hold even a fraction of them. It should not be forgotten that there is a natural right to liberty, and that the inmates of a reformatory should be released as soon as it seems reasonably probable that they can live decently outside, under parole, whether or not more education in the institution would be very good for them.

Apart from the stigma and the undesirable companionship (and incidentally, the cost), imprisonment is bad because it wounds self-respect, and because institution life usually lacks the most valuable components of real life. It lacks the outside temptations against which character whets itself; it lacks the independence without which character can hardly exist; and it lacks the need for earning a livelihood and for supporting a family which are such a ballast against unsteadiness. Of course freedom has dangers, but we grow strong by avoiding dangers, rather than by being removed from them, and the constant knowledge that imprisonment impends in case of any failure is a very strong curb.

Mr. Lewis, from whom I have already quoted, gave his views three years ago as follows: "With all the solemnity and emphasis of which I am capable, I utter the profound conviction after twenty years' constant study of our prison population, that more than nine-tenths of them ought never to have been confined. \* \* \* In all but extreme cases of depravity what is needed with the youth beginning a lawless career is that the social motives in him be awakened and strengthened, and that the habit of foresight, the sense of responsibility, the regard for the esteem of his fellows, the sympathy with mankind, be aroused by constant action. It is in the social life of the community that this work can properly be done. To learn to swim without touching the water is easy and natural compared to learning to live as a member of a free community while immured in prison walls." The growing reaction against confinement is shown in a tendency among judges, especially in

juvenile cases, not to use the jail, but to summon the accused for trial as in a civil action.

I repeat again my text of a year ago, that character is better formed by liberty than by force. More probation before imprisonment, and more parole after imprisonment, is the program of the future. And yet I know of one excellent reformatory which chooses to dispense with a special parole officer allowed it by the Legislature. This, it seems to me, is to reverse nature. The Indian mother straps her papoose to its board only because she lacks time to attend to it otherwise. Swaddling clothes keep a child out of danger, but it needs exercise in order to develop its baby strength, and if the mother is too busy we must have nurses. It is the same with infant character. Confined, character gains immunity and a certain habit of goodness, but character, like health, will never become robust except by exercise, under competent guardianship, in God's out-of-doors.

#### DISCUSSION ON UNIFORM SYSTEM OF PAROLE FOR STATE INSTITUTIONS OF SIMILAR CHARACTER.

The discussion was opened by Frank W. Robertson, M. D., Superintendent State Reformatory, Elmira.

Dr. ROBERTSON.—I feel the Conference is under deep obligations to Mr. Almy for the very valuable paper he has read to us, and I regret I did not receive a copy of his paper in time to give it the attention which it merits. I shall, however, endeavor to emphasize certain points in his paper which have particularly appealed to me, that your attention may be more especially called to these points.

I quite agree with Mr. Almy that the system cannot well be made the same for all these various institutions. I do not think it would be advisable for the reason that the methods of treatment differ to a certain extent in these institutions, and a uniform system of paroling inmates would very likely bring about undesirable results. Now, there is another thing which particularly impressed me, and it is this: That where various institutions conduct their ways and means of secur-

ing reformation upon different lines, it is a certain safeguard and it is very valuable in the sense that it gives us the benefit of the different ideas of different people in divers parts of the State. I think it very desirable that institutions should differ from one another, so we may have a better opportunity to study by comparison the results attained in each case. It would seem to me that inasmuch as we have been dealing with the parole theory for a period comprising scarce three decades, that it would be well to wait some few years yet in order that we may, if we are to adopt some uniform system, have had farther experience and study. There is another point which I wish particularly to bring out, and that is that uniformity of parole would tend to preclude originality. I quite agree with Mr. Almy that the inmates should be paroled as speedily as possible consistent with good results, but I wish to say it seems to me entirely proper, when we consider the bad character of the men who are put into our charge, that they should be retained in custody a sufficient length of time to prepare them properly to go out into the community. The method of life while under reformatory treatment serves to fit them better for parole. It seems to me we owe the inmate after he is put into our charge the proper preparation and the best treatment we can give him, and we cannot expect to effect a change in his morality, his mode of life, his habits, and to teach him a trade to fit him to earn an honest living, unless we hold him in our charge sufficiently long to be properly equipped, and to feel we have done our duty. It seems to me that we owe that treatment to the individual along three lines:

First. We should endeavor to treat him in such a way as to assist him to regain his self-control.

Secondly. We should increase his general education.

Thirdly. We should provide him with some kind of a way to go out into the world and earn a living by some trade or in some special manner.

Now, we seek to assist a man to be himself by means of discipline, and I must say frankly here, that I am one of those who believe in very strict discipline, because I believe it is just what is needed by the class of men whom we are called

upon to treat. So I lay great stress upon this, that often strict discipline is the treatment for the man who cannot control himself outside. Secondly, we try to uplift the man by a course of schooling and by lectures. This winter we expect to give a course on civil government. Thirdly, we teach him a trade, a trade which seems to be best adapted to his needs, considering the locality from which he came. This gives him self-control, school education and general education, and, third, the trade teaching fits him to go out and earn his living in a respectable, proper manner. After an applicant demonstrates his fitness along these lines we have confidence in him, and he is brought before the board of parole. Now, of course, this is the trying period in which the result of our treatment shows. We send institutional officers into the neighborhood to which these men are paroled, and we ask justices of the peace and chiefs of police to watch over those men and exercise such supervision as is possible. The results have been fairly satisfactory. In making improvements along the line of what we can best do to better the system in vogue, it has occurred to me the State might be subdivided into divisions and parole officers appointed, who should be, I believe, in each case appointed by the boards of managers of the several institutions in order to secure this originality under the present uniform system, if possible, and it should be the duty of these parole officers to watch over and look after inmates who are within their district. It is not that I find fault with the working of the present system where chiefs of police and justices of the peace look after our men, for, as a general thing, I have found their supervision to be excellent, and I feel very much indebted to them; but it is with the idea of getting parole agents who have received some training, to secure the services of specially qualified and properly trained persons to do this. Then I feel that the results would be very much better; that many paroled men who now get discouraged and drift other ways could be returned to the fold. I am certain of this. I have a case in mind where a man had been paroled, and through some misrepresentation or error of the person having charge of him (who was not a proper person, of course, for this purpose), there was some trouble. Complaints

were made and an official investigation instituted and the inmate's claim of innocence was sustained. Now, I feel that by having proper parole officers, men who understand how to deal with such a class as this, the inmates would feel they had some one to whom they could tell their troubles and we would have still more confidence that our inmates on parole were being properly looked after.

Now, just one word more in reference to the supervision of men on parole. There are many people who have such an antipathy to inmates of reformatories, that unfortunate class, that no matter how well they might be doing, they would lose their positions instantly were it known by anyone that they had come from a reformatory. Therefore it is very necessary that this supervision should not be burdensome nor irksome, that it should not be so severe in its nature as to cause annoyance or discomfort to the inmate or his employer, or the people with whom he is living.

I want to take just one moment to give some figures which have not yet been printed as to the results in the Elmira Reformatory.

The number paroled during the fiscal year ending September 30, 1902, was 384. Of these, 117 served well and earned absolute release; these men having made reports, the greater number for six months, some for one year. I have several cases in mind of men who were called upon to report to me for one year, because I had a little doubt in regard to them.

The number who have served well, as I say, was 117. Then those who are still maintaining their correspondence with us and maintaining their good conduct, the period of their parole not having expired, number 180. Those who have ceased correspondence, thus violating parole, and who have been lost sight of, number 54. Died while on parole, but doing well at time of death, 2. Left the country and still reporting, 3. Pardoned while on parole and doing well, 1. At the institution again under new sentence, 2. Returned to reformatory by arrest, 16. Sent to other prisons while on parole, 9.

You will notice that 117 have been paroled and received their absolute release, 180 are still in touch with us; of those

that have returned to crime, 54 have been lost sight of and so on. These figures show that 78 per cent. of those paroled have fulfilled their parole obligations and are doing well. While it is not likely that the 54 who have failed to fulfill parole obligations and who have disappeared from sight, have all returned to crime, still, for the purposes of this statement, we have included them with the failures. Mr. Brockway assumed that, of those who had been lost sight of, some effect had been wrought in them sufficient to warrant the assumption that one-half of them would probably lead better lives thereafter, and he therefore figures one-half of those lost sight of in his figures. I do not feel that I want to do that, and I simply state so many have been lost sight of, and figure they are all lost, although I sincerely hope I am in error. As I say, at the close of the fiscal year ending September thirtieth, we had 78 per cent. of our men whose names were standing on the good side of the ledger, which is most encouraging to us. In reference to the deaths, for 1902, there were seven deaths, while in 1899, there were 18; in 1900, 16; in 1901, 13. In 1899 there were 40 transfers to the State hospitals for the insane; in 1900, 80; in 1901, 17; and in 1902, 18. In the institutional hospital there were, in 1900, in the neighborhood of 60 patients, while there are now but 13. In 1900 there were 60 or 70 inmates in the invalid yard, whereas there are now 17; all these facts tending to show the care which has been exercised, together with the results attained by a careful observance of sanitary precautions and skillful treatment on the part of the attending physicians.

I hope you will pardon all this data, but I thought you might be interested in hearing these statistics somewhat in advance.

Rev. THOMAS F. HICKEY, Rochester.— I would like to speak on this subject briefly, because I have been actively engaged in work connected with the State Industrial School, at Rochester, as one of the parole officers. The subject has a close connection to that which was considered last night under the heading of probation. I believe there is no subject more important in its character for discussion in this Conference than the present one. Parole on probation, as I take it, represents

something which is growing, something that is to cure, something that is to prevent, and I agree with the writer, and I agree with the last speaker, that it would be impracticable to have anything like uniformity of system, because the moral disease is a great deal like a disease of the body, differing in one case from another. It is always relative in its treatment. Therefore, parole on probation must also be relative. Our system in Rochester was that the boy or girl was paroled subject to the ruling of the Board of Classification. I have known a child to be paroled after a detention of two weeks, and many others after a detention of six months or of one year to three years. These children, as you understand, after once being committed to that State institution, were under the control of the managers of the institution until they reached their majority. Our rule was to require them to report to us for at least two years, and if the report proved satisfactory up to that time they were released from parole. Last night one of the gentlemen in talking about probation said he questioned that it would be practicable in the smaller towns. I believe that any system that tends to uplift, to build up humanity ought to be practicable in a large or small community, and I believe from experience and from observation that in the treatment of the delinquent or the criminal there is nothing more powerful than the system of probation or parole. The variety of moral diseases seems to be as great as the variety of corporal diseases. It is utterly impossible to say there will be only one style of prevention for the first class, any more than there would be for the second class, of ills. I would like to urge upon this Conference that it is false economy to withhold anything that will tend to build up the character of any man. We make large appropriations and spend considerable money from time to time on the material structures. I believe that it is far better to appropriate sums of money for the building up of the human structure, to build up character, which is quite possible and practicable and easy to do when the child delinquent or criminal is taken in the proper manner, and I would like to have this Conference go on record as urging that all means practicable, all means possible, by

this probation or parole system, be used to prevent crime. I was but one of the parole officers in that State institution. I held this position for three years, and our work extended over most of the State of New York. The results showed that parole had a very wholesome influence over the boys and girls. Last night one of the speakers rather objected to anything that might seem to be force applied to the curing of the delinquent. While it is not the ideal or the highest form of treatment, we must understand that man, besides being composed of a spirit, is also a material being, and therefore is open to influence that will affect him materially, and I believe that this work, probation, properly handled, will be one of the most powerful instruments in building up humanity, and in curing the ills of society.

Chairman Wood then recognized Mr. F. H. Mills of the State Prison Department.

Mr. MILLS.—This morning, while this labor problem was under discussion, some statements were made in reference to the prisons of the State, and the productions of labor in those institutions. The Prison Department of the State asks the privilege of making a statement to the Conference in connection with the remarks that were made on that subject this morning.

Chairman Wood.—That can be done by unanimous consent. Is that consent given? If there is no objection we will take it for granted it receives unanimous consent. We will hear the statement.

Mr. MILLS.—Representing the Prison Department of this State, I rise to a question of privilege, and request your indulgence for a few moments to make a few statements in regard to the industrial organization of the State prisons. At the meeting of the Conference this morning I came in just in time to hear some statements made by members of this Conference in regard to the quality of the goods now being manufactured by the State prisons and sold to the institutions and political divisions of the State. It was said that the quality of cloth and clothing was inferior to any that could be purchased in open market,

and that the cloth was held together by "glue;" that the furniture manufactured in the prisons came apart before it could be unpacked. Over against these statements I desire to read you from the report of a committee of the State Board of Classification their conclusions as to the quality of cloth now made by the prisons.

"As to the quality of material used by the prisons, which is the true basis of establishing prices, samples of the wool and cotton used were examined by experts. As to the wool, an expert connected with the Wool Exchange of New York city states that the wool used is a scoured, pulled wool that will grade close to a Super B, and its value is 37 and 37½ cents per pound, that the wool is slightly dirty and not quite up to a Super in length, that it is good wool for all use, but if it were a little longer it could carry more cotton or shoddy. As to the cotton, it is 'Peruvian' and a good grade. The cloth was shown to the same party and he stated that in his opinion the cloth is better than could be procured in the open market, and that knowing the quality and grade of material used in its manufacture the State is sure of what it is getting. He further remarked that few goods came on the market nowadays that could be guaranteed and there was no way of establishing the quality or worth without analysis, owing to the fact that shoddy of various grades was so deftly incorporated.

"The opinion of two disinterested jobbers was that if the State can obtain cloth like sample (prison make) at ninety-one cents per yard, with the knowledge that there is no shoddy in the goods, it could not expect to do better, unless it bought in large quantities; that cloths on the market contained more or less shoddy, and only experts could determine its value.

"In view of the information obtained which has been made as brief as possible, covering the essential points only, your committee would recommend that the price on 22-ounce, 6/4 suiting, composed of 70 per cent. wool and 30 per cent. cotton, be fixed at \$1 per yard."

The report is signed by George D. Sanford, representing the State Commission in Lunacy, Geo. McLaughlin, representing the State Commission of Prisons, H. H. Bender,

the Fiscal Supervisor, and F. H. Mills, representing the State Prisons Department. This report was made after a very careful investigation as to the manufacturing business in the prisons, and compared with that of a similar nature carried on outside. The committee visited several of the large mills in the east and those in our own State. As to the quality of furniture being made in the prisons, the records of our office will show that more than a quarter of a million dollars' worth of furniture has been shipped to the city of New York during the last four years, and it has undergone the same inspection that other manufactures receive, and that the goods have been uniformly satisfactory. During the present summer the city of Albany waited more than two months for our department to manufacture school furniture, for the reason that our quality was superior to any that they could get. The same is true of Jamestown and many other cities of the State. It is a fact that the law directs that the quality, style and price of supplies made by the State prison shall be determined by a board. That on this board of four there is only one representative of the prisons; that every State institution purchasing goods from the State prisons is represented, and they are in the majority; that every article now being made in the prisons has received the sanction of this board and is made after the style so approved; that the prices at which the prisons bill the goods have been fixed by this board, and that any complaint as to the quality or price has always received a careful consideration at their hands. The volume of product in the State prisons during the past year is more than half a million dollars, and of all of that vast product not one per cent. was criticised by the purchaser. I, therefore, submit that the population of the State prisons of the State of New York are to-day all employed at productive industries, selected with a view of providing means of employment that give the inmates an opportunity of acquiring a trade that shall fit them for honest living after their release from prison; that the competition with outside labor is practically eliminated; that the market provided by law for the products is sufficient to employ every convict in the State prisons, every inmate of all the charitable institutions of the State.

On behalf of the Prison Department, I wish to say that their efforts have always been directed to the end of serving the several institutions better than they could be served by purchases in the market, and if they have in any instance failed it is quite as much the fault of the purchaser as of ourselves; and we feel that this Conference here, instead of making the extravagant statements that were made on the floor this morning wholly unwarranted and without a scintilla of fact, should coöperate with the Prison Department whenever and wherever they find any slight defect in the operation of the law, and should bring it to the attention of the Prison Department to the end that it may be corrected.

I submit further that the organization of the prison industries in the State of New York is to-day far ahead of that in any State or country in the world, and that another five years of progress like that of the last five years will demonstrate that New York has solved the vexatious problem of employment for adult convicts.

HON. HOMER FOLKS.—I rise because I feel that I must say something in reply to the remarks of the representative of the State Prisons Department. I wish in the first place to say that the various complaints which the Charities Department has at times made to Mr. Mills have always been most courteously received and treated with the greatest consideration, and I speak only because I think a failure to do so would be construed as an acquiescence in the inferences which one must draw from Mr. Mills' statement, that is, that the services rendered by the prisons to the charitable institutions is altogether satisfactory.

Now, of course, you all know that the law is that we cannot buy from any other source, without a certificate from the Prison Department that they cannot provide the goods. If it were not for that, if we were at liberty to purchase from the prisons whatever they are able and ready to deliver, I think the system might work without serious difficulties, but I am bound to say, in order to keep within the limits of truth, that at present the system does work with very grave difficulties, and that among the different kinds of red tape, statutory and otherwise, that

surround the supplying of institutions in the Charities Department, at the time and place needed and with the articles needed, the State prison requirements, taking them altogether, constitute about the most formidable obstacle. I should have to say, too, to tell the whole truth, that complaints have been pretty numerous from the heads of institutions with regard to the quality more particularly of the furniture; that there also are very grave complaints, made to me from time to time, with regard to delays in the providing of the articles needed. I recall, for instance, the fact that last June we ordered, I have forgotten how many thousand blankets, but Mr. Mills will remember. Now blankets are an article of imperative necessity in the winter time. We ordered them in June in order to have them on hand by the beginning of cold weather. Perhaps the number was so large that it would have been better if the Prison Department had then told us we might purchase certain of these in the open market by advertising in the usual way, which process consumes from six weeks to two months. We have received out of that very large number of blankets about one-eighth or one-fourth—how is that Mr. Mills?

Mr. MILLS.—About that.

Mr. FOLKS.—But it is cold weather now and we need the blankets, and the Superintendent of State Prisons has recently authorized us to buy thirty-five hundred blankets by contract, by public advertising. But that means now a delay of at least two months and probably more because we find the market, the open market, is oversold. Everybody else who wanted blankets for the winter has bought them, and when we come in we find the market is sold out and at the very best we shall be hard pressed to find blankets for the winter.

I mention this in detail simply to state what I believe to be the case, that, while Mr. Mills and his colleagues have given very careful, and I know serious consideration and study to this matter of furnishing supplies to State institutions, it has not yet reached the stage at which it is not a very serious embarrassment to those responsible to the public for the care of the inmates of these institutions.

**Mr. MILLS.**—I will take just one moment, so the impression will not go wrong. The prisons provided first for the manufacture of cloth, and they were all provided with plants sufficient to take care of 3,000 yards of cloth a day, but we had to employ about 50,000 yards of that first for our own uses. We had to take care first of our own people in the State institutions, in the institutions of the State Commission in Lunacy, to keep them warm. Now, while we have endeavored and will endeavor to do everything we can for everybody at all times, we must first take care of our own. I understand the Kings County Penitentiary has a large number of people who could have been making these blankets all summer.

**Mr. FOLKS.**—I don't think the public of New York city would approve of me if I was to give that as a reason for failing to supply some of the necessary things; if there was urgent need for blankets in the Tuberculosis Hospital in December or January, I don't think it would excuse me, in the eyes of the public of the city of New York, to state the fact that the prisons had first to make blankets for the prisoners and the insane. The Kings County Penitentiary might have made them if they had been asked to do so; if we had had the State Prisons Department's consent in time they might perhaps have made these blankets and had them for us now.

**Mr. FRANK TUCKER, New York.**—The people of the city of New York have come to realize in various directions that when there is a procession of the people of the State of New York the people of the city of New York usually carry the target and pay the tolls.

**Miss MARY VIDA CLARK, New York.**—In speaking this morning about the cloth produced by the prisons I was referring rather to the lack of variety in the samples of cloth offered than to the inferiority of the quality of the cloth supplied. I am glad, however, to learn through sources of inside information that in this respect there has been improvement recently. I understand also that the prisoners are now well occupied with work, that in fact they are overworked. If that is so, they cannot object to more work being done by the charitable

institutions. I am glad to know there will be no objection on the part of the prison authorities if the State charitable institutions should make their own brooms, etc., and those who are interested in charitable institutions will be very much relieved indeed to know that if a bill is introduced this winter in the Legislature to give these charitable institutions the right the State hospitals now have to make their own products as far as they can, there will be no opposition on the part of the prison authorities, that, in fact, they will welcome it. That is my understanding of their position. I believe that is the way it ought to be. My feeling about it is that the State charitable institutions have a perfect right to do what they can to support themselves. I believe it is not right that any individual or institution should be made dependent upon others if that individual or institution can be wholly or to a large extent independent. I think that every State charitable institution should have the right, as every State hospital now has, to contribute to its own needs as far as it can, and that when it can make more products than it needs it should be allowed to trade them with other charitable institutions, and what it cannot get from charitable institutions it should get from the prisons, and what it cannot get from the prisons it should get in the open market.

The sixth session of the Conference was adjourned by the President at 5.45 p. m.

### **SEVENTH SESSION.**

*Thursday Evening, November 20, 1902, Senate Chamber.*

The session was called to order at 8.20 p. m. by President Stewart.

Mr. Daniel B. Murphy, Chairman of the Committee on Organization, presented the report of said Committee on the organization of the Conference of 1903, which will be found on page 298.

President STEWART.—You have heard the report of the Committee on Organization. What is the pleasure of the Conference? Shall the report be adopted?

On motion of Mr. Hebbard, the report of the Committee on Organization was unanimously adopted.

**REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.**

The Committee on Resolutions, through Mr. James Wood, submitted the following report. As each resolution was read Mr. Wood moved its adoption and in each instance the resolution was adopted, the question on the third and fourth resolutions being put by Mr. Wood, the President stating he was not in a position to put the motion.

The Committee on Resolutions begs to submit the following:

(1) *Resolved*, That the thanks of the Conference are due and are hereby tendered to the members of the Local Committee of Arrangements for their kind attentions, and for their efforts in making the attendance upon the Conference a pleasure, as well as profitable.

(2) That the delegates to this Conference are under obligation to the Superintendent of Public Buildings, Hon. Robert J. Hill, for the use of the Senate chamber for its sessions, as well as for many other courtesies extended to the Conference and delegates.

(3) That they are under obligations to the President and to the Secretary of the Conference and to the members of the Committee on Program, for their thought and care for the pleasure and profit of the members present, which have been so instrumental in making the Conference such a decided success.

(4) That they are especially gratified at the evidence presented by the proceedings of the Conference of the constant and intelligent efforts of the State Board of Charities in the interest of a more intelligent service on the part of all the charities of the State.

(5) That they appreciate the valuable service of the press in bringing the proceedings of the Conference to the notice of the general public.

(6) That, Whereas, the Third State Conference of Charities and Correction recognizes the increasing need of enlargement of the several State institutions devoted to the care, treatment and custody of the feeble-minded, idiotic and epileptic dependents of the State, and

*Whereas*, This Conference is aware of the difficulty of taking proper care of these classes of dependents in the almshouses and other similar charitable institutions of the State, and in private homes, where it is impossible so to provide for their special needs as to give assurance of such treatment as their necessities require, and where, owing to the peculiar nature of their infirmities, they are a menace to the welfare of the other inmates in such institutions or homes, and are a source of public danger from the difficulty of preventing improper increase in numbers, and

*Whereas*, Provision must be made, in part by enlargement of institutions and in part by a better classification of inmates among institutions, which will keep pace with the natural increase of this class of public dependents in our State, therefore, be it

*Resolved*, That the Third Conference of Charities and Correction respectfully presents to the Legislature of the State of New York the need of such liberal appropriations as will permit the enlargement of the accommodations for the reception of these classes, and it urgently suggests such consideration of their needs as will insure the proper growth of these institutions, and sufficient dormitory and other equipments to relieve all other public and private charitable institutions and private homes of the care, treatment and custody of all persons belonging to these special classes.

*Resolved*, That a copy of this resolution be sent to the Legislature for its consideration.

J. H. HAMILTON,  
*Chairman.*

JAMES WOOD.

The President then called to the chair Hon. Eugene A. Philbin, of New York city, Chairman of the Committee on Politics in Penal and Charitable Institutions, who presented the report of the Committee, and presided throughout the session.

## REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON POLITICS IN PENAL AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

In the intercourse between persons engaged in a common enterprise certain phrases and words often spring into use which briefly and eloquently convey volumes of meaning, and present most clearly what would take great length of time and many words to make plain to the uninitiated. Among experienced workers in practical charity no word is more pregnant with offensive meaning than "politics." It at once brings to mind the most malign and vicious obstacles to efforts in aid of the helpless. It is ruthless selfishness against self-sacrificing charity. The very helplessness of the dependent is a source of gratification to the politician who seeks to profit at the expense of charity, for it provides him with means of revenue. His own interest demands not only that the class shall not be decreased by relief, but that the subjects of charity shall be increased to his political or personal profit.

It should not appear strange, therefore, if the same indomitable spirit that makes easy all sacrifice to perform the sublime mission of charity should determinedly fight an invasion of politics into the field of the most sacred of human endeavor. It is armed and strengthened by the consciousness that it is not a battle for a personal cause, and that no selfish benefit can be acquired. The two-fold duty to the dependent and those who supply the money for his relief must be unceasingly and fearlessly performed.

In dealing with this evil of politics, it must be remembered that it is not with the subordinates that the fight must be made, but with the officers of the army of spoilsmen. The average employe of an institution can be made to perform his duties satisfactorily by proper supervision, even to the extent of largely overcoming natural disqualification.

On the other hand, if such supervision is lacking, or the superiors conduct the place for their own or political ends, the most capable servants may be compelled to disregard their duty in order to retain their positions as a means of livelihood.

The appointment of persons to positions in an institution for purely political reasons cannot but inspire in the appointees the feeling that the first and principal obligation is to the political party to which they owe the place. The employment is often obtained by one who, because of shiftlessness, lack of intelligence or like reasons has been unable to obtain a living otherwise, but whose relatives or friends have acquired some political strength which commands patronage. Almost any degree of unfitness may exist under such circumstances without interfering with the appointment or retention of such an employe.

How much interest in the welfare of the dependent will such a servant have under the circumstances? His guiding thought will be to satisfy the persons to whom he owes employment. Every official act in such a case is influenced by a regard for the effect it will have upon his party, and it is probable he will look forward to establish such a claim as will insure his obtaining a higher and more lucrative job.

The average political appointee looks upon the periods during which he is out as mere intervals, always expecting another public office. He does not seek the position for the honor of holding it, but simply because his living can be earned in no other way. He is irrevocably committed to political life; his existence and that of his family depend upon it. It is best then to train these men to appreciate the trust reposed in them, and by guaranteeing that no loss shall follow devotion to duty, even if it offend the political powers, give practical encouragement and even inducement to good service.

This view of political life is not intended to embrace those who have used their political strength to advance charitable interests, and it would be showing a lack of appreciation to fail to recognize the many obligations that are owing to politicians of high character, who have frequently lent their efforts in earnestly coöperating with those engaged in charitable work.

For many years the trustees of our State institutions have been selected by the appointment of citizens distinguished for their devotion to charity, and the possession of real public spirit. Their affiliation with some political party, while some-

times a factor in the appointment, was not a controlling one. The following of this policy procured an administration that had nothing to influence it save the welfare and advancement of the inmates.

The wisdom of the State went even further, however, and preserved an official supervising body from the taint of politics. The members of the State Board of Charities were selected in the same manner, and it has possessed for many years the unique position of a department of the commonwealth not guided nor influenced by political considerations.

In the selection of its employes it sought the endorsement of no political party, and was even without knowledge as to the affiliations of the successful candidates for employment. That such a state of affairs could exist without exciting envy in the breasts of politicians was not to be expected, and efforts have been made to gain control of the Board. The very reasons for its existence have, up to the present, defeated such attempts. It has been felt that with all the opportunities for acquiring a livelihood and even wealth presented to the average citizen, he could well afford to refrain from trying to make money out of the dependent wards of the State. It was further the feeling that there was a sort of degradation in seeking to take the means provided by the charitably disposed and the funds of the State contributed to by all its citizens, and applying them to one's own personal use. Officials of high and low degree have been confronted upon such occasions by a solid body of citizens who have devoted their lives and the best that was in them to helping the unfortunate, and who were firmly resolved that the means of supervising the real welfare of the dependent should be neither destroyed nor impaired.

By chapter 252 of the Laws of 1902, the State Charities Law of this State was amended so as to provide for the appointment by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, of a fiscal supervisor of State charities. The term of office is fixed at five years, and the salary at \$6,000 per annum, in addition to which actual and necessary expenses are allowed.

The act leaves to the discretion of the supervisor the number of employes to be engaged by him in the business of the office.

The duties specified are to visit each of the State charitable institutions, including the State School for the Blind, and the Elmira Reformatory, at least twice in each calendar year; to examine into the condition of all buildings, grounds and other property connected with such institutions, and into all matters relating to their financial management; to appoint, in his discretion, a competent person to examine the books, papers and accounts to the extent deemed necessary; to report annually to the Governor and the Legislature as to the matters made the subject of supervision as above stated. The power of removal for cause, and after a hearing, is given to the Governor not only as to the Supervisor but also as to the superintendent or steward of any such institution.

A further right is given to the Supervisor to revise the monthly estimates of the institution as to quality and quantity of the supplies, and the estimated cost thereof. No detailed statement need be made in the estimate as to a sum not exceeding two hundred and fifty dollars of such supplies. The salaries of the employes are likewise made subject to the approval of the Supervisor.

The employes in the office of the Comptroller in the charitable bureau are transferred to the office of the Supervisor. The effect of this legislation is not to supply an omission in the charitable system of the State, but to make a radical and undesirable change.

The duties assigned to the Supervisor have been performed for years by the State Board of Charities, which has always been aloof from political considerations, and the State Comptroller, with better results than can be expected of anyone filling the new office, even though possessed of the highest character and ability.

The inspections by the State Board of Charities have been made for the most part, personally by the Commissioners, and when not made by them, by their trusted and experienced subordinates, who knew that no political influence could save them from the penalty for a disregard of duty.

The charitable bureau of the State Comptroller's office was thoroughly reorganized some years ago by the Honorable Theodore P. Gilman, formerly State Comptroller, and now Deputy Comptroller.

The system in use was such that the office, by keeping tabulated records of the purchases of all the institutions, could determine not only whether the quantities were proper, but also as to the correctness of the prices. It simply involved a comparison of other estimates. No fault has ever been found with the methods adopted by the State Comptroller, or the State Board of Charities, except in regard to the strictness in insisting upon economy in the State institutions, and the close supervision exercised to attain that end.

The Comptroller under the new legislation has still a duty to perform, since he is required finally to audit the estimates, and that will require the services of some of the employees of the Department. Therefore, there cannot be said to be economy in that direction.

A similar unfortunate alteration is to be found in the change of the law as to the care of the insane and the Prison Commission. The State Commission of Prisons consisted of eight members who were all men and women of high character, and had given disinterested attention to the performance of their duties. The number was reduced to three, only one of whom was a member of the original board. The latter was given a salary of twenty-five hundred dollars per year, whereas he with his former colleagues had been serving practically without compensation.

To those who have for years made a study of the care of the dependent wards of the State, it is beyond question that the best results are obtained where the institutions are under the immediate care of trustees selected because of their well-known interest in charitable work, and who are willing to give their services for the gratification of the spirit of charity only as compensation.

The abolition of the several boards of trustees of the different State hospitals for the insane, and placing the latter under the control of the State Commission in Lunacy, was deemed, therefore, a serious mistake. When it is remembered that the trus-

tees thus removed from office were persons, who, for the most part, had been wisely selected by the Governor because of their real interest in charitable work, and their high standing in the respective communities to which they belonged, it will be impossible not only to imagine any humane reason prompting the change, but also to believe that it was suggested by any consideration for the dependent wards of the State.

It cannot be questioned that the taking away from the Governor of this power of appointment was most inadvisable, as experience has shown that the best results have been obtained by his performance of the duty.

It not infrequently happens that defective and injurious legislation is procured by persons of the highest intentions, who only contemplate the performance of the duties authorized by those with the best motives, and utterly fail to appreciate that there is as much likelihood of a power being abused as of its being properly exercised. It is, therefore, not necessary in condemning the legislation above referred to, to impugn the motives of those who prompted it.

Let us not rest satisfied with merely the expression of our views in relation to the interference of politicians with the work undertaken, or with our theories as to the best methods of fulfilling the exalted mission of aiding the helpless, but rather let us try and arrive at some practical way of preventing an unrighteous interference with the duty we have assumed. This is not so hard of accomplishment as it might seem, for politicians, like the objects of charity, are dependent upon the favor of their fellow man. Their living is not won by a straight relentless fight with mankind, although there are often severe struggles among themselves. There is an utter absence of the fearless independence that characterizes the ordinary breadwinner, who earns his money not by favor but by the necessity of his employer. The latter is, as a rule, really the dependent one.

The self-sacrifice of the earnest worker for charity, the utter absence of all personal advantages from his efforts make him a force it is well the politicians should heed. He is strengthened by the most sublime of all human motives—the ambition to succor his unfortunate fellow man. He belongs to a great army

recruited from the hundreds who have been giving their individual efforts to noble ends and who within the last few years have entered the ranks of organized charity. This army is a national one and its great influence will be used unhesitatingly and fearlessly in behalf of the sacred cause in which it has enlisted. No religious or political affiliations will deter it from attacking those who would try to use the alms of charity for their own profit or who would seek to interfere in the slightest with the welfare of the helpless and infirm dependents of the State. The unique fact that the members can derive no personal benefit from their efforts makes it all powerful.

If those actively engaged in charitable work would combine in the making of a national, as well as a local black-list, which would contain the names of all politicians who sought to use the alms of the poor for their personal profit, it would take but a short while to be assured of freedom from such interference.

EUGENE A. PHILBIN,

*Chairman.*

JOSEPHINE SHAW LOWELL.

HERBERT PARSONS.

EDWARD B. AMEND.

M. E. BANNIN.

JOSEPH T. ALLING.

WILLIAM CHURCH OSBORN.

MORRIS LOEB.

BIRD S. COLER.

*November 20, 1902.*

Mr. George E. Dunham, of the Board of Visitation of Utica State Hospital for the Insane, next read the following paper on "The Centralization in the Management of State Charitable Institutions."

#### THE CENTRALIZATION IN THE MANAGEMENT OF STATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

The very term, "State Charitable Institutions," necessarily involves centralization. The desirability of a certain amount of centralized supervision on the part of state authority is conceded.

The real question is how much. For the purposes of this paper centralization will be considered only in its relation to hospitals for the insane, but much the same arguments obtain with reference to all other state charitable institutions.

Shall the central authority be absolute and final or shall it be shared by local representatives, so situated as to be able to make frequent personal inspection, keeping in close touch with the institutions and the needs of their inmates? Shall they be managed at long distance or at short range? Shall some supervising authority make semi-annual or weekly visits? Shall the asylums and hospitals be only wheels in one great machine wholly governed at Albany, or shall each be complete in itself, with its own direct managers accountable to a higher and central authority? Shall one man or one commission control every appointment and disbursement or shall the system be such that one board may have a check upon another?

In the first place, the wisest and most intelligent management of state hospitals at the hands of a commission at Albany is a practical and physical impossibility. There is more work mapped out in the law than three mortal men can do even if they gave it their entire time and attention. There are 14 state hospitals and 23 licensed private hospitals for the insane, all of which must be visited. There are more than 23,000 patients. To go through all the wards, rooms, buildings, etc., of a single one of these public institutions is a journey of miles and miles. How much actual knowledge can be gained of all that needs to be known for the very best administration, in the visits the central authority can make? Local boards of managers can and did make visits of inspection and investigation every week in the year. Think of purchasing all the supplies of every name and nature for a population of 28,000, most of whom are sick, keeping the millions of dollars' worth of property in repair, deciding the thousand and one questions constantly coming up, and it is no wonder that most of this important business must be done by clerks, who naturally know little or nothing of actual conditions or needs. Are clerks in an office at Albany as competent to pass on these matters as prominent business and professional men in the several localities willing to give generously of their time from philan-

thropic motives and willing to render gratuitously that service which the state has the right to ask of the citizen? At best the visits of the central authority must resemble angels' visits in the respect that they are few and far between. Any business man knows that frequent inspection is essential to the highest standards of efficiency where many persons are employed. Visitors cannot render the same service because every employe understands that they have no real authority. Many former managers accepted appointments as visitors, regarding it their duty to do even the comparatively little the new law allows. They were interested in the cause and have done and are doing the best they can under the circumstances, with reason to believe that their service is appreciated by the patients and their friends.

It is worse than a mistake to suppose that the hospitals for the insane can be conducted on the same lines and under the same system as state prisons. In the former, special cases require special treatment; in the latter, uniformity is not only possible but desirable. Uniformity may easily be a vice in one case and a virtue in another. The inmates of one institution are sick, seeking recovery; of the other they are criminals, suffering the penalty of outraged law. The variance in the degree of sympathy which each can claim is no greater than the difference in the treatment to which each is entitled. The advocates of centralization make an idol of uniformity and never look close enough to see that it has feet of clay. It must obtain in the management of widely separated but centrally controlled institutions. Under that system there can be no individuality, no special provision for special cases. Too much uniformity may make of them only houses of detention rather than hospitals for the scientific care and treatment of those mentally sick. Far and away better is the policy which permits local management to meet and profit by local conditions, each doing its best with what it has to do with and each under well-established general principles to vie with the other in securing the greater comfort and the larger recovery rate.

One of the fallacious arguments advanced by the advocates of the Brackett bill was and is that the hospitals are better furnished than the homes whence many of the inmates came and

that the fare is better than many were accustomed to before commitment. Of course the hospitals held up as horrible examples of extravagance were built under the direction and supervision of the Commissioners, who ordered and audited the expenditure of every dollar. But let that pass. The same situation obtains in every general hospital in this and every other country. If that is a valid claim, then the general hospitals should have comforts for the well-to-do, with a hovel and a pallet of straw in the back yard for the poor. The pitiable surroundings and the scanty fare of honest poverty have driven many a man and woman into lunacy, and does the great state of New York want further to flaunt that misfortune in their faces and say that in its hospitals they can have nothing better than they had at home? Cleanliness, common comforts, proper fare, kindly interest and attention go as far toward helping the poor as the rich to recovery, and are as much appreciated. There is need neither for parsimony nor extravagance. A reasonable amount of local management will prevent both.

The friends and families of patients have some rights and privileges that are entitled to consideration. If they personally know those in authority they feel a sense of security and have a guaranty which does not go with a far away and centralized power wielded by men most of them have never heard of and few of them have ever seen. Convalescent as well as chronic patients are prone to complain to their relatives, who, if they have acquaintance with the manager, can the more readily be assured that the treatment is for the best. These friends feel a great sense of security in the privilege of going, without long or costly travel, to some one higher in authority than the superintendent and physicians, to present the case in which they are interested. But it will be urged that they can go to the official visitors. True, they can go to them and they can go away again. The best the visitors can do is to report to the Governor and the Commission in duplicate and perhaps in the course of time something might come of it and again it might not. The visitors have no power to remedy a flagrant abuse or inaugurate a reform, however much needed. Those who seek their counsel must do so with full knowledge that any recommendation forwarded takes its chance

of going through or forever lingering in the circumlocution office of the Commission at Albany. It used to be of weekly occurrence that managers visiting the hospitals were appealed to by patients having real or fancied grievances against physicians or nurses, and their complaints were looked into and dealt with as they deserved. Even in next to the last stage of this centralization process which has been going on for years, the hospitals had managers empowered to appoint superintendents, who in turn appointed all the other attachés, and thus they had the very authority designed to be most effective in such cases. Quick investigation, followed by prompt application of the remedy, is obviously desirable. Under centralization it is a practical impossibility.

One of the best arguments against centralization is the possibility, to say the least, that the institutions may become a part of the political machine where everyone, from superintendent to farm hand, owes allegiance to the bosses of the party in power. This has been the case in other states, to the disgrace of the system and the detriment of the service. Now for the first time in the history of this State is there suggestion or suspicion of politics in the hospitals for the insane. When politics control the appointments in State hospitals it is a sorry day for the inmates and a costly one for the people. The administration of patronage mongers is never economical or of high standard. Permanence during good service is an essential inducement to securing the best physicians and nurses at the salaries paid. If these places are to be made dependent on political pull, people competent to give good professional service will not seek or accept them. Under centralization all these drawbacks are not only possible, but probable. What has happened in other states is a precedent and a warning. There are New York politicians in both parties who are neither patronage proof nor 99.98 pure.

In all fairness, without hesitation and with much pleasure, it can be and is said that there has been no attempt to invoke politics in securing appointments at the Utica State Hospital for the Insane under the present law any more than before. Under an excellent superintendent and competent assistants,

with a capable steward and efficient heads of the departments, practically the same as in recent years, the civil service regulations alone control. Goods are purchased for the institution of the lowest responsible bidder. Others can speak for other hospitals. It is not, however, by what has occurred in a few months by which the law should be judged, but by what is possible under its provisions. If the central authority desired it, the hospitals could be brought completely under political control. With similar circumstances the temptation has been irresistible in other states. Proper statutory provisions would answer the prayer to be delivered from temptation and would be the wise course of safety.

It was urged with great earnestness in behalf of the Brackett bill that some managers had not managed faithfully. Without going into that further than to put in a general denial and ask for a bill of particulars, the natural suggestion is that responsibility for inefficient managers rested with the commissioners, whose supervision, if intelligent and diligent, would have detected them, and whose business it should have been to report to the Governor, whose duty in turn it was to remove them and substitute others in their places. It was conceded that if all the managers had been like some boards there could have been no criticism. Whose fault was the retention of inefficient managers? Certainly not the fault of the system. Doing away with a good system because it had a few poor exponents, suggests Secretary Shaw's recent reference to the foolishness of setting on fire and burning up the wheat field to destroy a few thistles. As well abolish a post-office because the post-master locked up to go to a ball game.

When centralization has its perfect work then the word charitable must be dropped, since it will be no longer descriptive of these institutions. There is as much charity in the way a thing is done as in the deed itself. The long arm which reaches from this Capitol clear across the State to any of the hospitals leaves the hand very far from the heart. Ideal charity cannot be managed by machinery. The donor or his representative must accompany the gift by some assurance of interest, some word of cheer and encouragement. Doing a

thing because you have to is not charity. The paupers are kept by the counties in the almshouses, and he is the popular superintendent who does it at the lowest per capita, but even a centralized imagination has never designated an almshouse as a charitable institution. Simply housing and feeding people awaiting the day of dissolution is neither hospital nor charitable treatment. Real charity has a heart in it, but centralization is heartless. And when the adjective goes the word hospital will follow it into temporary exile, for such a hospital as the Empire State should have must make modern psychological science and the search for recovery the main object, rather than a low per capita. Absolutely centralized management is incompatible with the charitable idea, be it in hospitals for the insane or asylums for the blind or for the deaf and the dumb. Centralization is always cold and sometimes cruel. It deals in ounces and pounds, in dollars and cents. At best its aims are utilitarian and pecuniary. It puts the penny first, the patient second. It seeks to contract the cost rather than to expand the recovery rate. It deals with figures, not with scientific problems. It is cool and calculating, without the milk of human kindness or a drop of warm heart's blood. If it shall gain full sway, then the phrase "charitable institutions" will be a misnomer.

There are advantages in buying certain staple products in bulk for all the institutions, but a decrease of centralization need not deprive the State of that economy. There is absolutely no gain which can by any possibility be realized from this system which could not be retained and rendered more effective by a proper share of localized government and home rule. Publicity in public institutions is manifestly desirable. It might not measure to the fraction of an ounce how much of anything a patient could have to eat, but it would see to it that the food was sufficient and at least of good quality. Decreased central authority might lessen the certainty that all over the State, at precisely the same moment, more than 23,000 patients in the hospitals were having the same number of mouthfuls of precisely the same food, but even that change would not retard recovery. Simultaneousness is not the highest achievement of

true medical science. The uniformity which is an essential feature of centralization is hostile to the true hospital spirit and idea. It discourages individual effort on the part of physicians and nurses, making them to feel that they are atoms rather than even units in a great aggregation with whose progress they are not personally concerned, for whose success they will get no credit, and for whose failure they cannot be held responsible. It substitutes a far-off authority for a local interest and local pride which can be of substantial value. The greater the number of those earnestly interested in and attentive to any institution of a charitable nature the better for it and its inmates. The centralization which prevents and repels this local interest is a positive detriment. Its care for the insane has been called "the state's greatest charity," and to deprive it of all the gain that can come to the unfortunate from this view of it is to do positive damage to thousands whose lot is most unhappy and to deepen the gloom which surrounds them, their families and their friends, which, goodness knows, is deep and dark enough at best. The insane are not criminals nor even unteachable idiots, but are sick mentally, and for many of them, under proper conditions, there is not only hope but assurance of recovery. When centralization blots out or even blurs the hospital idea it does a grievous wrong, a wrong, however, for which there is always legislative remedy.

Chairman PHILBIN.—The discussion on the last paper read, Mr. Dunham's paper, which is so very comprehensive and so able, will be opened by Hon. Edward B. Amend, manager of the Catholic Protectory, New York.

#### DISCUSSION ON "THE CENTRALIZATION IN THE MANAGEMENT OF STATE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS."

Mr. AMEND.—I will not consume the ten minutes' time allowed me in discussing the admirable paper read by Mr. Dunham. It would be folly on my part. I could not add anything to it and besides that I suppose there are a good many others who may have something to say on it and I will give them a chance.

I take it the proposition itself is self-evident, that centralization in the management of institutions is at no time desirable.

You can find that in the private institution of which I have charge. We find that in every-day affairs; I find it necessary to go around and seek from many others what particular bearing this or something else may have on a particular subject. Now, if we find that necessary in private life, how much more must it be necessary in public affairs, and I submit the statement itself can admit of no discussion, that centralization is in no case desirable. I trust you will excuse me from further discussion of this subject.

Mr. THOMAS F. WILKINSON, Albany.—Having heard the paper of Mr. Dunham with grateful appreciation, and believing that every person here was greatly impressed by the forcefulness of his argument and the clear cut expression of his ideas, I feel that there ought to be something added to the very brief remarks made by Mr. Amend of New York. I feel at least that it is due to the gentleman who read the paper, as well as to the cause itself for which he read it, that we should express to him our personal appreciation and sense of gratitude for his splendid presentation of the subject of the centralization in the management of our charities in this State. I simply want to suggest, in addition to the expression of my gratitude for the gentleman having favored us with this paper, that it ought to be considered by all present, and all who are interested in this splendid work of charity, whether something cannot be done to bring about the desired condition, or at least a limited local management of the local charities under the law as recently enacted. If there be a vice in the very fact of centralization of management of these institutions, and if it be so fixed now that it is probable that we cannot alter that condition, at least as to the fact of legislation enacted—that is probably something that cannot soon be changed under present conditions,—is it not at least our duty to see whether those who legislated upon this subject may not further legislate and modify such features of the law as enacted as to meet with the sentiment and judgment of those who are best acquainted with the charitable institutions of the State, and who can best advise as to what would be judicious legislation upon the subject of their management? Now it seems to me it is advisable, and that for the best interests of these

charitable institutions themselves it is necessary, as suggested by the gentleman who spoke, that there should be some sort of local advisory management, or rather something more than a merely advisory management as is now the law. There ought to be some sort of actual participation in the management by the charitably disposed and well-informed persons in the several localities who are willing and anxious to serve for the betterment of these unfortunates. And it seems to me, therefore, that if there be a committee on legislation it ought to be requested to consider this subject and present to the Legislature such recommendations as it may deem advisable for the purpose of modifying or amending the present law to meet with this sentiment, which I believe to be very general, that there must be for the best interests of the inmates and the management of these charitable institutions some sort of local management, a participation in the management by the wholly disinterested and kindly disposed charitable people who have heretofore and who are yet willing to give their energies, their thought and their best endeavors to further the interests of the unfortunate in these several State institutions.

I, therefore, desire, Mr. President, to urge upon all here that that thought suggested by Mr. Dunham be considered and, if possible, be put in some practicable form in the way of legislation, or something else that may be effectual to carry out the idea which I believe we all fully appreciate as most desirable and necessary for the best interests of these institutions.

Chairman PHILBIN.—If there is no one else who desires to be heard on the discussion of Mr. Dunham's paper, we will proceed to the reading of the next paper. I want to say that Mr. Herbert Parsons, who has prepared the paper has, under the advice of his physician, been unable to attend here to-night, and Mr. Devine has given another proof of his great interest in the Conference work by volunteering to read this paper on very short notice.

Mr. Devine then read the following paper by Mr. Herbert Parsons, of New York:

### THE REASON WHY POLITICS IS LIKELY TO AFFECT PENAL AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

In the election on November 4th of this year the vote in the city of Greater New York was a surprise. Many had identified the election a year ago with the Republican party, and consequently claimed that this year's election showed a large falling off in the Republican vote. This is not the place to discuss that vote. It will serve our purpose to assume that it was a falling off for the Republicans. In explaining this falling off, what is said? Who, knowing the rank and file of the Republican party, has not in these last few days heard it repeated a dozen times that the principal reason why the Republican vote was so small was that the citizens who had voted for the so-called Reform Administration were tired of seeing the Tammany men hold on to office and those who had voted for the Reform Administration kept out.

Whatever the truth in the allegation that that was an important cause, if so many assert it must we not suppose that there is something of the truth in it? In explaining the reasons why some people are actuated by that circumstance we will ascertain the reasons why politics is likely to affect the service in penal and charitable institutions.

Why does a man wish to be appointed to public office? One reason is that he is frequently a person whose importance the office will increase. It obtains for him a higher standing amongst his associates. Although it is a political position, and subject to the party's outgoing, he seems very little deterred by the fact that it may last only for a short time. He probably is not certain that his other employment may last for long and he is willing to take the chances on this. It is always surprising how few men realize the risk they are taking in accepting political office. Many men have in their youth held office and then lost it by political changes when they have become too old to fit themselves for anything else. Its glitter allures them.

The principal reason, however, why an ordinary man desires to hold public office is that the work is less and pays more

and certainly. It is the wages question. Everyone wants the job that pays the most for the least work in the shortest hours. Who shall have the job? Why should John Jones hold the position instead of me? I have worked for the success of my party, or of my movement, have given up a great deal of time to it, and my side has succeeded. Why should John Jones, who worked against me, and whose side has been defeated and whose side, as I claim, is in the wrong, be continued in office and have the ease and comfort which his office gives him above what I can obtain from my own employment? Did not he get his job once because his party was then in power? There is then no injustice to him in my getting his job now. You know I am as good a man as he is.

The purist who would attempt to answer the complaint of the would-be office-holder is thus at once told that the other side violates the law and looks after its people, and why should not ours? And the purist soon learns that the situation is one that calls for a soft answer to turn away wrath, nor will he deny the merits of his political friend.

There is, moreover, in all this a rivalry and banter going on between those who politically are holding jobs and those who are identified with the successful but non-office-bringing movement. Ridicule in this, as in other things, often counts for more than reason.

So much for the attitude of the would-be office-holder. What is the attitude of the man to whom he appeals for help? If the would-be office-holder has been a hard worker in the party's cause or the movement, what superior in the party or movement who knows of his work would not be sympathetic to his appeal for help and would not really desire to see the man succeed and attain the goal of his ambition? There is nothing *per se* wrong in desiring to be a public servant.

When in Edinburgh this summer I visited the city hall and asked the custodian how much part politics played in the appointments. His answer was that the public thought it played no part, but that those who knew what transpired on the inside were aware that it did. Later on I met a promi-

nent Scotch barrister of the reform type, who commented upon our inability here to run municipal matters in a business-like way. I expressed my doubt as to whether it was always so business-like when they ran them, and he admitted that naturally members of the council might like to have old family servants appointed to berths where they could end their days. I wonder how many corporations or even charitable societies have not at least one person who procured his position because of the sympathy in his personal case felt by some member of the board of directors?

The sympathy argument plays a large part with many of us. It always has played a large part. Court life, when monarchies were monarchies, consisted largely in gossip and maneuvering as to who was being and who should be "taken care of."

Are we not apt to forget how ancient is this political fellow-feeling, this desire and principle of "taking care of" our political friends? Are we just in blaming the man who asks the reward of public office for political service, if we for a moment think of the years and years of history which illustrate the power of the principle of taking care of one's political friends? There is nothing so contrary to the abstract idea of the republic or of democracy as the spoils system. The spoils system was prominent in the clan system. It was a feature of feudalism. The genius of Napoleon was insufficient without the practice of the principle to give him his might. It is the attribute of monarchy which we have found it most difficult to throw off. The wars of old were the wars of the spoilsmen. The winner "took care of" his followers. The question of land tenure in Ireland to-day seems almost an attempt to set right a wrong the spoilsmen wrought centuries ago. How did many of the Irish estates come into the hands of the present owners' ancestors? In no other way than as rewards for political service. It was not because they knew how to till the land and make it bring forth an hundredfold that they were given it, nor because of agricultural service that they acquired it. They got it, not to render service by but to live off of. And their absenteeism is but a different grade of the absenteeism we may sometimes see here on the part of job-holders.

Against the sentiment of those who would hold public office in return for political services, against the natural desire to help on the part of almost all of us, against the principle of taking care of political helpers first and the public last, what are the forces operating in favor of the principle that only fit persons shall be employed in the State and city's charitable works? If any such principle can be put into practice, surely it should be able to find a foothold in our charitable institutions. While I have shown the naturalness of politics in charitable institutions, may I suggest how they can be thwarted without injustice to anyone? I have taken the office-seeker's side against blaming him. The history back of him is too strong to justify that. And I do not wish to advocate cold-heartedness towards those who would get better livings. If they have no abstract right to ask for help, we have none the less no moral right to decline to help them. But the idea of the public service is still several steps higher. It is the idea of the republic, the *res publica*, the public welfare, that demands the best service for each particular end in view. Whenever an appointment of a high official is made, we should be sure that he is a person who will feel tremendously his responsibilities and the gravity of the appointment, or of permitting the appointment of any person who is not thoroughly fit to discharge his duties. The official to be appointed must not only fear the law, or even public sentiment, he must have a religious feeling of responsibility and fear, or something akin to it. Public sentiment, as expressed in the public press, can do a vast amount. There are, as statistics show, a large class of people who hold the balance of power and cast their ballots on the side which they think is right. They can be appealed to on such points as these, and the more the press will expose any improper action, the more you will have the strength which the support of these people means. The more one learns about charitable matters and about public matters, the more one realizes how really few there are who understand them. Such crookedness as goes on in high places, goes on under cover. It can, in large measure, go on only because it is under cover. The fewer who know about it, or who know enough to draw proper conclusions, the safer are the schemers. A large responsibility is

thus placed upon a few who know about the conditions and what should be. They, with the aid of the press, can arouse public sentiment so that the class of persons who will insist upon the best for the least amount will continually grow. They, with the press, ought effectually to keep politics out of the supply departments. They, with the press, ought to be able likewise to instill into the minds of those citizens from whose ranks the would-be office-holders come, that it is a question of proper service for themselves and their friends who may be forced to make use of the charitable institutions, and that their possible future welfare demands the best service, obtained in the most effectual way. Parents are coming to this point of view in regard to teaching in the public schools. Why not in regard to charitable institutions?

How about salaries? What effect has their lowness or highness? Will not their highness be a temptation for politics to enter in? The State and city should be model employers, in hours, salaries and the efficiency demanded. But if we would be sure of keeping politics out of our charitable institutions, we must have there a set of public servants who will be willing to take even a little less than their work deserves. High salaries are coveted by the undeserving, as well as the deserving. The higher they are the more they are coveted, but the greater the work that must be done the less they will be coveted, and few will be in favor of displacing a conscientious man who, for inadequate pay, works overtime because of his love for the work and his sympathy for those whom his work is to help. Can we ever expect to obtain, simply by a promise of pay, the work and sympathy for the people that we need in our charitable institutions? In my opinion we will not. Salaries should begin low, and when a man has amply proved his deserts, his should be raised. Those who come in afterwards should start low again, and be raised as their deserts prove they should be. Naturally there must be sufficient pay, but in the case of skilled workers, where the salaries are regularly higher than in the case of the laboring force (I am not speaking of this branch), the pay should never be so high as to be a temptation. The present tendency is not towards lowness.

Eternal vigilance, knowledge of conditions, publicity and self-sacrificing work towards the proper ideal, on the part of those who make this Conference, will ever be needed to place and keep politics out of charitable institutions. Let us, however, in our fight have charity for those who so naturally wish the positions as political rewards. They are not to blame. Their desire is not to be pronounced bad. We must simply have a higher and unfaltering standard, the true idea of the republic. More will come to have the true idea of the republic in this regard.

Recently an active political worker was asked to interfere in a political way in connection with one of the charitable institutions. He declined, and said that politics ought not to be allowed to enter in any way into the hospitals or other charitable institutions. He was not one who would hesitate to help to better wages any political worker. That he should say that politics should be kept out of the hospitals and charitable institutions means infinitely more than that you or I should say it; it means that he has perceived the true idea of the republic.

#### DISCUSSION ON "THE REASON WHY POLITICS IS LIKELY TO AFFECT PENAL AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.

Chairman PHILBIN.—The discussion on Mr. Parsons' paper was to have been opened by Mr. Ansley Wilcox, but owing to his unavoidable absence Mr. Homer Folks has kindly consented to open the discussion. But before calling upon Mr. Folks I would like to ask you to grant me an opportunity to perform what I believe is nothing less than a duty. It involves a eulogy of Mr. Folks in one sense, but I do not want it to be so considered. I want to state just what is the fact, and that is that the Charities Department of New York city has been raised to a plane that the greatest enthusiast in charitable work never hoped for. And while criticism has been showered upon the present administration in New York city, there has not been one word of adverse opinion expressed with regard to that department, and when you realize that the civil service rules have compelled Mr. Folks to retain the men he found there; men who have been actuated throughout their public life as a rule by no other considerations than political ones, you

will appreciate the difficulties he has had to contend with and the credit he deserves for what he has accomplished. As I said, I don't say this as a compliment to Mr. Folks, but simply as a statement of a fact that ought to be made known to this assemblage.

HON. HOMER FOLKS, New York.—I have two ideas on this subject which I would be glad to express. It might naturally be supposed that one who has spent a period of ten months in the Department of Public Charities of the city of New York might have some ideas and convictions in regard to the subject of politics in charitable institutions which he did not have at the outset. I am not at all sure that I have. In fact I seem, as I think of it, to have been so exceedingly busy with other matters as to have had no time to form even impressions on this feature of the work of the Department. I had an opportunity to examine Mr. Parsons' paper for a minute before coming in the room this evening. With one thought in it I found myself in entire sympathy; with another, not in sympathy. I am not in sympathy with Mr. Parsons' view, that a low salary tends to keep out political aspirants or diminish their zeal or the zeal of their friends who desire to secure the situation for them. On the contrary, my impression is that such political pressure as there has been—there has not been much—has been rather for the positions carrying little or no salaries, than for those carrying larger salaries. It is my conviction that instead of paying salaries at all adequate to the work to be done by most officials in the Charities Department, we pay salaries that are inadequate, and that we would secure better service, and would be more likely to secure independent service if we paid better salaries.

I am in sympathy, however, with his view that we should not deal harshly nor unsympathetically with those who approach us and who hold the idea that positions in charitable institutions should be used, as in the past, for more or less of party advantage. I mean to say that is so natural, that opinion is one to which those in public life in New York city especially have become so accustomed, that it is not necessary to read

into that any vicious intent, but simply habit. We must, I think, even guard against the feeling that the man who is endorsed by a political leader is necessarily a bad man. I think that the political leader might naturally and justly regard us as standing so straight as to lean backwards if we refused to consider information which he chose to give us regarding any candidate for public office. I know, as far as I am concerned, I have said from the first in regard to applicants for office, in regard to those on civil service lists within the range of choice, that I welcomed information from every source, and would give every such item of information its due weight and consideration. I have taken a great deal of time, it has seemed worth while to me to take a great deal of time, to set forth to those who have come to me to urge political appointments, the wrong that would be done to the inmates of our institutions by such a course, and I have yet to find more than a very few even of the political leaders and workers who do not, when the matter is properly presented, express more or less sympathy with that view. When we speak of politics interfering with charitable institutions, we really have in mind the matter of appointments, and is it not well to stop and consider what is the fact and not take it for granted. What is the fact? The Civil Service Law has practically changed all of that to this extent: That out of some 1,600 positions in the Department of Public Charities of New York city there are about four, not including chaplains, that are in the exempt class. All the others are within civil service, practically all within competitive lines. That limits the appointing officer to one of the three at the head of the list, and those who are interested in improving the administration of public charities can do no more practical work than in improving the civil service system and the administration of that system, so that it will command general confidence, so that the examinations shall be a proper, adequate and rational test of the fitness of the several candidates for the duties to be performed, and see that those who are qualified to perform these duties will take such examinations. If there is any doubt as to the honesty of these examinations, or as to their efficiency, a deadly blow has been struck at good administration. If it

should be possible for the appointive officer to select from such a list a person who, nevertheless, was a political appointee, he can do so without taking the responsibility for it, and that is a fact more serious than appointing a political person upon the initiative of the appointing power. But I sometimes think I would be almost willing to let anyone make the appointments if I can have direct charge of things unhindered, with power of dismissal and power of promotion. These abuses in politics seem to me to be much more serious as they relate to those in office than to those who wish to be in office, and it seems to me from my little experience that it is quite a tradition, that it must have been an almost universal custom, for those in office who are charged with some dereliction in duty, to go, not to the Commissioner to state their explanation, but to go to their political sponsor for his intervention. It is a most difficult thing to make it generally felt and understood that the only escape for a man who is charged with dereliction, is that he himself shall make an adequate explanation to the head of the Department. And then it is absolutely essential for good administration that the power of promotion shall rest in the head of the Department, and that that power shall be exercised only on the basis of ascertained merit, fidelity and faithfulness. The discipline of any large department can be maintained only when influences in promotions are absolutely eliminated.

There is another kind of what might be termed interference by politicians in charitable institutions which is somewhat amusing and always pathetic. I suppose I am called to the telephone at least once a week by some one who tells me that he is the leader of such and such a precinct or of such and such a political organization and that he has some constituent he would like to have admitted to Bellevue Hospital, or some other institution under my care, and asks if I will please have that done as a favor to him. Well, I say, all he needs to do is to make his application; everybody is admitted who is sick and needs to be admitted. But won't I take some special pains to see that he is well taken care of? Well, of course, all I can say is that we try to take special pains that everybody is well taken care of. Then we are asked to see the superintendent, they want us to see that they give more

of their time to one patient than to the average that are taken there. There seems to be a deep-seated idea — it must be deeply rooted in the heart of the community — that they must secure some outside influences. I often feel these people enjoy a favor which comes to them by reason of their political connection much more than if it comes in the usual ordinary course and is available for others.

In regard to supplies. The purchase of a million dollars' worth of supplies every year might easily be thought to offer large opportunities for political manipulation. It is supposed to be very carefully safeguarded by the provisions of the charter in regard to letting contracts and the execution of the same. It is evident to me, however, it would be possible, notwithstanding all these safeguards so to manipulate these things as to use them for partisan advantage. I say it is possible. I take a great deal of pleasure in saying also that it is perfectly possible and perfectly easy to expend that money without feeling the slightest pressure to do it in any improper way. Not a single improper suggestion has been made to me, so far as I now recall, in regard to the letting of any contracts, or the purchase of any supplies, or the erection of any building.

No one else desiring to discuss the paper, President Stewart resumed the chair, and brought the Conference to a close with the following remarks:

No member of this Conference will, I am sure, fail to agree with me in claiming that it has now fairly passed beyond the experimental stage, nor that it has not realized the objects for which it was established. These are stated in the Constitution in terms which we do well to remember.

“The objects of the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction are to afford an opportunity for those engaged in charitable and reform work to confer respecting their methods, principles of administration, and results accomplished; to diffuse reliable information respecting charitable and correctional work, and encourage coöperation in humanitarian efforts, with the aim of further improving the system of charity and correction in the State of New York.”

The opportunity to confer has been availed of by a large number of delegates at the three Conferences which have been held. About 100 more delegates have registered this year than at our first meeting here two years ago. They have come from every part of the State and represent all classes of charitable and correctional institutions within its borders. We have heard from the clergy, the physicians, the sociologists, and the laity both men and women. Among them were managers, officers or workers of state, county, municipal and private charities. It seems reasonable for me to say that the twenty reports of committees and papers which have been presented for our consideration yesterday and to-day are of a higher average standard of excellence than have been presented at any Conference, national or State, which I have ever attended. Bound together in one volume they will find their places in our public and private libraries, and thus diffuse reliable information respecting charitable and correctional work, which is one of the main objects of our Conference. Some of these papers should take rank among the classics of the records of philanthropic achievement. The only criticism which has come to me since this Conference began was, that there had not been a sufficient discussion of these papers.

To my mind this, if true, is because there was a substantial agreement among the auditors as to the soundness of the principles laid down, for it is very evident that there is no lack of debating ability on this floor, and no disposition on the part of the members of the Conference to waste any of its time.

The harmony and good feeling which have prevailed are only such as were to have been expected from a gathering like this.

The Committee on Time and Place has wisely chosen Buffalo for the sessions of the Fourth Conference. This was a natural selection as Buffalo is our second city and an influential center of charitable effort. I hope and believe that the attendance there next year will be large and representative. We have unanimously elected Mr. Thomas M. Mulry, president of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul of the city of New York, to the presidency of the coming Conference. This gentleman has long been a

friend and fellow worker of mine, and his selection is a well-merited recognition of his devotion to the upbuilding of charity work in this State. Congratulating him upon his election, let me assure him of our hearty support and express the hope that under his leadership the Fourth Conference may be even more useful than those which have preceded it.

With the further wish that each of you may be prospered personally, and that the charitable work in which you are severally engaged may be blessed, I conclude the duties which you have imposed upon me as your presiding officer, and which I expect always to remember as among the most congenial and honorable of my life.

This Conference stands adjourned.

# CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS OF THE NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

## CONSTITUTION.

The objects of the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction are to afford an opportunity for those engaged in charitable and reform work to confer respecting their methods, principles of administration, and results accomplished; to diffuse reliable information respecting charitable and correctional work, and encourage coöperation in humanitarian efforts, with the aim of further improving the system of charity and correction in the State of New York. With this end in view, the Conference will hold an annual meeting in the State of New York, at a time and place to be agreed upon at the preceding annual session, at which addresses shall be made, papers read, discussions carried on, and general business transacted in accordance with the by-laws of the Conference.

The Conference shall not, however, formulate any platform nor adopt resolutions or memorials having a like effect.

## BY-LAWS.

### I.

#### MEMBERSHIP OF THE CONFERENCE.

All who have an active interest in the public or the private charitable or correctional work in New York State are invited to enroll themselves as members of the Conference. No other tests of membership shall be applied, and no membership fee charged, the expenses of the Conference being met by voluntary contributions.

### II.

#### OFFICERS OF THE CONFERENCE.

The Conference shall have the following officers, to be elected at the preceding annual session, with the duties herein respectively assigned to them:

1. A President, who shall preside over the sessions of the Conference, except when the chairman of a Committee on Topics has charge of the meeting, or some other officer is temporarily called to the chair.

The President shall also be a member of the Executive Committee, and the Chairman *ex officio* thereof, and shall continue to be a member of the said Committee when his term as President has expired.

He shall have supervision of the work of the other officers and of the various Committees in preparing for the sessions of the Conference, and shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the Committees on Topics of the Conference.

The President, with the assistance of the Secretary, shall also supervise the editing of the proceedings of the Conference.

2. Three Vice-Presidents, who shall, at the request of the President, assist him in the discharge of his duties, and in case of his inability to serve, shall succeed him in the order in which they are named.

3. A Secretary, who shall be *ex officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and who shall keep the records, conduct the correspondence and distribute the papers and documents of the Conference, under the direction of the Executive Committee. He shall assist the President in editing the proceedings of the Conference, and direct the work of the Assistant Secretaries.

4. Three Assistant Secretaries, who shall assist the Secretary of the Conference, at his request, and work under his direction.

5. A Treasurer, who shall receive all moneys of the Conference, and disburse the same upon vouchers duly certified by the Secretary, and audited by the Chairman of the Executive Committee.

### III.

#### COMMITTEES OF THE CONFERENCE.

The Conference shall have the following Committees, with the duties herein respectively assigned to them:

## TO BE ELECTED BY THE CONFERENCE.

1. An Executive Committee, which shall consist of the President and all ex-Presidents of the Conference *ex officio*, and of five members of the Conference to be elected annually at the preceding session of the Conference. Three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Executive Committee shall have charge of the business of the Conference during the interim between the sessions of the latter, and shall give attention to any matters referred to it by the Conference or these by-laws. The program of the Conference, as arranged by the Committees on Topics, shall be subject to the approval of the Executive Committee.

2. The Committees on Topics, which shall each consist of not less than eight nor more than sixteen members, to be elected annually at the preceding meeting of the Conference.

These Committees shall have charge of the preparation of that portion of the program of the Conference which is assigned to them respectively, subject to the provisions of these by-laws and to the approval of the Executive Committee, to which they shall severally report as soon as practicable after their appointment.

They shall also have charge of the sessions of the Conference respectively assigned to them.

TO BE APPOINTED BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE CONFERENCE AS SOON  
AS POSSIBLE AFTER THE OPENING OF THE SESSION.

3. A Committee on Resolutions, which shall consist of three members of the Conference, two of whom shall constitute a quorum. All resolutions, except as herein otherwise provided, shall be referred to this Committee without debate, and the Committee shall, before the Conference adjourns, present such a report as seems to it desirable.

4. A Committee on Organization, which shall consist of seven members of the Conference, four of whom shall constitute a quorum. To this Committee shall be referred all questions relating to the organization of the succeeding Conference, and the Committee shall present a report thereon as soon as practicable, and prior to the adjournment of the Conference.

5. A Committee on Time and Place, which shall consist of five members of the Conference, three of whom shall constitute a quorum. This Committee shall hear and consider any invitations that may be received from the various cities of the State, and shall present a report thereon as soon as practicable, and prior to the adjournment of the Conference.

#### IV.

##### THE PROGRAM OF THE CONFERENCE:

The order of business at each separate session of the Conference shall be as follows:

1. The transaction of general business.
2. Report of the committee on the topic of the session.  
Not to exceed twenty minutes.
3. First paper on the program.  
Not to exceed twenty minutes.
4. Discussion opened by a speaker selected for that purpose.  
Not to exceed ten minutes.
5. General discussion of the subject presented by the paper. Speakers limited to five minutes each, and no one to speak twice on the same subject except by vote of the Conference.
6. Second paper on the program.  
Not to exceed twenty minutes.
7. Discussion opened by a speaker selected for that purpose.  
Not to exceed ten minutes.
8. General discussion of the subject presented by the paper. Speakers limited to five minutes each, and no one to speak twice on the same subject except by vote of the Conference.
9. Miscellaneous business.

#### V.

The by-laws shall continue in force unless amended by the Conference, after proposed additions or amendments have been submitted to the Executive Committee.

## LIST OF DELEGATES AND MEMBERS.

### THIRD NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Those who attended the Conference are marked \*. The list gives also the names of the organizations the delegates were appointed to represent.

- \* Aaron, Rabbi Israel, Temple Beth Zion, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Allen, Mrs. Charles F., Home for the Friendless, Newburgh, N. Y.
- \* Almy, Frederic, Buffalo Charity Organization Society, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Amberg, Mrs. Max, Niagara Falls, N. Y.
- \* Atwater, W. O., Professor of Chemistry, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.
- Backus, Miss Ella F., representing Supervisor of Poor of Schenectady County, Campbell avenue, Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Backus, Mary, Schenectady County Visiting Committee of State Charities Aid Association, P. O. Box. 98 Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Baker, C. K., State Prison Department, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Baker, Jonathan, Keeper Suffolk County Alms-house, Yaphank, N. Y.
- \* Baker, Rev. Nelson H., Erie County Poor, St. John's Rectory, West Seneca, N. Y.
- \* Baker, R. C., Particular Council of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 1192 Lexington avenue, New York city.
- \* Ballard, William R., 289 Lexington avenue, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Barnabas, Rev. Bro., New York Catholic Rectory, 43 Lodge street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Barrett, Joseph, Manager, New York State Reformatory for Women, Katonah, N. Y.
- Barrows, Mrs. Charles, representing Supervisor of Poor of Schenectady County, 410 State street, Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Barrows, Hon. S. J., Corresponding Secretary, Prison Association of New York State, 135 East Fifteenth street, New York city.
- \* Barry, J. J., Catholic Home Bureau, 1169 Boston avenue, New York city.
- \* Bates, Helen Page, Assistant Sociology Librarian, State Library, 273 Hudson avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Bauer, F. E., Deputy Superintendent, Department of Public Charities, 2 East One Hundred and Sixteenth street, New York city.
- Beals, Miss Annie R., Jacob A. Riis House, 48 Henry street, New York city.
- Becker, Mrs. Tracy C., representing Superintendent of Poor of Erie County, 160 Highland avenue, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Becker, Mrs. W. T., Schenectady County, 26 Third street, Schenectady, N. Y.
- Becker, W. T., Supervisor of the Poor of Schenectady County, 26 Third street, Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Bender, Hon. H. H., Fiscal Supervisor Charities, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Bergen, Mrs. Tunis G., President, Kings County Committee State Charities Aid Association, 101 Willow street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \* Betsinger, Helen H., 17 South Hawk street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Biggs, Dr. Hermann M., Medical Officer of the Board of Health, 5 West Fifty-eighth street, New York city.
- \* Bijur, Nathan, Vice-President, United Hebrew Charities of the City of New York, 32 Nassau street, New York city.
- \* Bird, Patrick H., The Catholic Boys' Association, 162 Ninth avenue, New York city.
- Blagden George, Jr., 18 East Thirty-sixth street, New York city.
- \* Blair, Elmer, Chief Clerk, Department Public Works, 445 Western avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Bookheim, Mrs. Louis W., 160 Hamilton street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Boom, L. F., New Scotland, N. Y.
- Booth, H. M., Supervisor of Poor of Schenectady County, 157 Lafayette street Schenectady, N. Y.
- Bosworth, Mrs. Jessie F., City of Cortland, Cortland, N. Y.
- \* Boyle, James F., Treasurer, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 140 East Forty-fourth street, New York city.

- \* Brace, C. Loring, Children's Aid Society, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.
- \* Brady, Paul T., St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, Syracuse, N. Y.
- \* Bressler, David M., Manager, United Hebrew Charities, 73 East One Hundred and Eighth street, New York city.
- \* Briggs, Mrs. F. H., State Industrial School, Rochester, N. Y.
- \* Briggs, Franklin H., Superintendent, State Industrial School, Rochester, N. Y.
- \* Brogan, James, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 213 Madison avenue, Syracuse, N. Y.
- \* Brown, George R., Superintendent, Leake & Watts Orphan House, Yonkers, N. Y.
- \* Brown, Herbert S., Charities Review, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.
- \* Brundage, Rev. William M., 710 Madison avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Buchanan, Charles J., 156 State street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Buck, W. B., State Charities Aid Association, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city
- \* Burks, Sister Mary Anna, Treasurer, Le Couteux St. Mary's Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf Mutes, 2064 Main street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Burke, John, Treasurer, Roman Catholic Protectory, 140 Liberty street, New York city.
- \* Burke, Right Rev. T. M. A., Madison avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Burr, Margaret W., Home for Destitute Children of Madison County, Casenovia, N. Y.
- \* Burrill, Harvey D., Commissioner of Charities and Correction, City Hall, Syracuse, N. Y.
- \* Burritt, Olin Howard, Superintendent, New York State School for the Blind, Batavia, N. Y.
- \* Butler, E. J., Director, Catholic Home Bureau, 102 West Forty-second street, New York city.
- \* Cadoo, Joseph H., State Architect's Office, 93 Northern Boulevard, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Canfield, Prof. George F., President, State Charities Aid Association, 49 Wall street, New York city.
- \* Carlin, Patrick J., Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum, 26 Court street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \* Carpenter, Dr. P. T., City of Cortland, Cortland, N. Y.
- \* Carter, Rev. George G., Chancellor of All Saints Cathedral, 62 South Swan street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Cary, Eugene, New York State School for Blind, Niagara Falls, N. Y.
- \* Cassidy, Peter A., Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 68 Park avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Cauley, Charles, 61 Sophia street, Rochester, N. Y.
- \* Child, Byron M., Superintendent of State and Alien Poor, State Board of Charities, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Clare, William F., Director, Guild of the Infant Saviour, 149 Broadway, New York city.
- \* Clark, Miss Mary Vida, Assistant Secretary, State Charities Aid Association, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.
- \* Clarke, Charles W., representing Superintendent of the Poor of Erie County, 16 West Seneca street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Clarke, Mrs. Laura B., New York State Woman's Relief Corps Home, Oxford, N. Y.
- \* Clayton, Mrs. Melvil A., 73 Eagle street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Cochrane, Dr. Harold D., Bureau of Charities, 59 Eagle street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Coleman, Caryl, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Pelham Manor, N. Y.
- \* Collins, Hon. C. V., State Commissioner of Prisons, State Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Collins, Mary E., House of Refuge, Lock Box R., Hudson, N. Y.
- \* Coney, William F., 6 Pine street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Conroy, Rev. J. H., Ogdensburg City Hospital, Ogdensburg, N. Y.
- \* Cook, Paul, Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Troy, N. Y.
- \* Cooper, Bessie T., representing Superintendent of Poor of Erie County, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Coughlin, Jeremiah, St. Joachim's Hospital, Watertown Herald, Watertown, N. Y.
- \* Cowee, James F., Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Troy, N. Y.
- \* Cowen, Philip, Publisher American Hebrew, 485 Central Park, West, New York city.
- \* Craig, James D., M. D., Health Department, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Crane, John, Superior Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 307 West One Hundred and Third street, New York city.
- \* Crosman, Cortland, State School for the Blind, Alexander, N. Y.
- \* Crouse, Mrs. Charles E., Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-Minded Children, 715 Genesee street, Syracuse, N. Y.
- \* Cullen, Thomas J., Paulist Church, St. Vincent de Paul Society, 419 West Fifty-ninth street, New York city.

- \* Cullen, Margaret, Catholic Agent, Placing out Children, 181 Sandusky street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Cannon, Frank, Particular Council of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 407 East One Hundred and Twentieth street, New York city.
- \* Curtin, Miss Alice E., Superintendent, Western House of Refuge, Albion, N. Y.
- Curtis, S. Allen, Home for Destitute Children, Eaton, N. Y.
- \* Cuyler, Mrs. J. G., Rescue Work, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Daggett, Clark L., 400 Western avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Daly, Joseph I., St. Vincent de Paul Society, 435 East Seventy-second street, New York city.
- Darling, H. H., Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Troy, N. Y.
- \* Davenport, Mrs. John, Bath, N. Y.
- \* Davis, Rev. Cameron J., Charity Organisation Society, 64 Irving place, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Davis, Katharine Bement, Reformatory for Women, Bedford, N. Y.
- \* Dean, Emma A., County Agent for Placing out Children, 193 Norwood avenue, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* De Forest, Miss Florence, 65 Lancaster street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Deitz, Wallace E., Berne, N. Y.
- \* Delaney, Mrs. Peter A., Secretary, St. Elisabeth's Guild, 111 Lark street, Albany, N. Y.
- Delaney, Thomas F., Particular Council. Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 711 Oswego street, Syracuse, N. Y.
- \* Devine, Edward T., General Secretary, Charity Organisation Society, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.
- \* Dewing, Dr. Oliver M., Long Island State Hospital, Kings Park, N. Y.
- De Witt, Abraham V., Albany Orphan Asylum, 71 State street, Albany, N. Y.
- Deyo, George T., State Department of Prisons, Dannemora, N. Y.
- Dike, Norman T., State Department of Prisons, City Hall, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \* Doane, Right Rev. William Crosswell, city of Albany, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Donahue, John F., St. Vincent de Paul Conference, 95 Fourth avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Donlon, Elisabeth, St. Elisabeth's Guild, 263 Hamilton street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Dorey, M. Canisius, Sanitarium Gabriels, N. Y.
- \* Dorney, M. V., St. Malachy's Home, 75 Williams avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \* Dougherty, James E., St. Joseph's Hospital of the Sisters of the Poor of St. Francis, 1131 Crotona Park, North, New York city.
- Daulton, Rev. E. Herbert, Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Troy, N. Y.
- \* Doyle, Rev. A. P., Paulist Social Settlement, 415 West Fifty-ninth street, New York city.
- \* Dressel, Herman G., Charities and Correction, City Building, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Dreyfus, Mrs. E. E., Emanu-el Sisterhood, 56 West One Hundred and Twelfth street, New York city.
- \* Duel, Frederick H., Prison Department, 94 Lancaster street, Albany, N. Y.
- Duffy, Stephen, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, River street, Troy, N. Y.
- \* Dunphy, Mrs. M. C., Randall's Island Schools, Randall's Island, New York city.
- \* Durant, F. B., Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Watervliet, N. Y.
- \* Duross, Charles E., The Catholic Boys' Association, 244 West Fourteenth street, New York city.
- \* Duryea, Dr. J. T., Kings County Institutions at Brooklyn, Kings County Hospital, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \* Dutton, Mrs. Elwood Herbert, Home for Friendless Children, 11 Thirteenth street, Troy, N. Y.
- \* Dutton, Rev. Elwood Herbert, Home for Friendless Children, 11 Thirteenth street, Troy, N. Y.
- Dyer, James B., East Berne, N. Y.
- Ehnes, Joseph, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 240 Shumway street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Einstein, Mrs. William, United Hebrew Charities, 121 East Fifty-seventh street, New York city.
- Eisenmenger, Frederick, Supervisor of Poor of Schenectady County, 105 Wendell avenue, Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Ennis, Mrs. Grace E., 131 Elm street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Ennis, John W., 131 Elm street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Erwin, William H., Department of Charities and Correction, City Building, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Evans, Edward R., Regents Office, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Fairchild, Rev. E. M., Educational Church Board, 29 South Pine avenue, Albany, N. Y.

## 290 THIRD NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES.

- \* Fairchild, Mrs. Salome C., N. Y. State Library, 29 South Pine avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Falker, Mrs. August, Western House of Refuge for Women, 609 East Genesee street, Syracuse, N. Y.
- Fallon, Rev. Father, City of Buffalo, Church of Holy Angels, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Fallon, Rev. J. G., Supervisor of the Poor of Schenectady County, 930 Albany street, Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Fanning, James O., 200 Partridge street, Albany, N. Y.
- Ferris, Mr. Morton, Northwestern Dispensary, 128 West Fifty-ninth street, New York city.
- Ferris, P. J., Erie County Poor, West Ferry street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Ferris, Major Madison, Salvation Army, 120-124 West Fourteenth street, New York city.
- \* Fisher, Mrs. Minnie Searle, Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, 1873 South Salina street, East Onondaga, N. Y.
- \* Fitzgerald, Dr. John F., Rome State Custodial Asylum, Rome, N. Y.
- \* Fitzgerald, J. J., Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 817 Cauldwell avenue, New York city.
- \* Fitzpatrick, Rev. M. J., Mission of the Immaculate Virgin, 2 Lafayette place, New York city
- Flanagan, Edward, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 25 Vliet street, Cohoes, N. Y.
- \* Flanagan, Patrick, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 183 Madison avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Folks, Hon. Homer, Commissioner of Public Charities of the City of New York, foot of East Twenty-sixth street, New York city.
- \* Forbes, James, Charity Organization Society, 9 Chambers street, New York city.
- \* Ford, Mrs. L. F., Charity Organization Society, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.
- Foster, Sally, Suffolk County Almshouse, Quogue, L. I., N. Y.
- \* Frankel, Dr. Lee K., United Hebrew Charities of the City of New York, 356 Second avenue, New York city.]
- \* Freeman, Mrs. Flora, National Florence Crittenton Mission, 21 Bleecker street, New York city.
- Freeman, Rev. H. R., Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Troy, N. Y.
- Freeman, Mrs. S. H., House of Shelter, 77 Columbia street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Fullerton, Mrs. M., New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.
- Gabriel, Sister Mary, St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, 1313 Main street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Gabrielle, Sister M., German R. C. Orphan Asylum, 564 Dodge street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Gaskill, Mrs. C. B., Niagara Falls, N. Y.
- \* Gaus, Hon. Charles H., Mayor of Albany, 185 Lark street, Albany, N. Y.]
- \* Gehrnich, Charles L., State Board of Charities, 444 East Eighty-ninth street, New York city
- \* George, W. R., George Junior Republic, Freeville, N. Y.
- \* Gfroerer, L., St. Catharine's Hospital, 660 Grand street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \* Gibbard, Rev. Isaac, State Industrial School, Rochester, N. Y.
- \* Giffen, Rev. John, Bureau of Charities, 82 Philip street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Gillespie, Geo. J., Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 56 Pine street, New York city.
- Gilmour, Mrs. John, representing Supervisor of Poor of Schenectady County, 607 Union street, Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Gorham, Dr. George E., Craig Colony, Fairview Home for Friendless Children, 214 State street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Gott, Harry C., Albany, N. Y.
- Greene, Dr. Walter D., City of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Griffing, Byron, Suffolk County Almshouse, Shelter Island, N. Y.
- \* Groesbeck, Edward A., Albany Home School for Oral Instruction of the Deaf, Albany, N. Y.
- Guigley, Rev. James B., Erie County Poor, 1025 Delaware avenue, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Hallauer, Frank A., City of Rochester, 96 Front street, Rochester, N. Y.
- \* Hamilton, Bishop, Methodist Episcopal Church, San Francisco, Cal.
- \* Hamilton, Prof. J. H., Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.
- \* Harrington, Mrs. F. A., Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Hart, I. S., Comptroller's Office, Albany, N. Y.
- Hart, Frank, Berne, N. Y.

- \* Hays, Mrs. Sarah L., Open Door Mission, 646 Central avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Heberd, Robert W., State Board of Charities, Albany, N. Y.
- Havens, Lelia, Suffolk County Almshouse, Moriches, N. Y.
- Heath, Mrs. Julian, Jacob A. Riis House, East Orange, N. J.
- \* Helmettetter, William, Deputy Commissioner of Charities, 405 Hawley avenue, Syracuse, N. Y.
- \* Hendrick, Rev. T. A., I.L.D., Children's Aid Society, Rochester Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, 50 Hand street, Rochester, N. Y.
- Hengerer, William, Erie County Poor, 256 Main street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Hessberg, Mrs. Albert, Albany Hospital, 222 Lancaster street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Hickey, Rev. Thomas F., Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Platt and Frank streets, Rochester, N. Y.
- Higgins, Mrs. Col., Salvation Army, 120-124 West Fourteenth street, New York city.
- \* Hill, Robert W., State Board of Charities, Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Hilles, Charles D., New York Juvenile Asylum, One Hundred and Seventy-sixth street and Amsterdam avenue, New York city.
- \* Hinckley, William C., State Board of Charities, 15 Elberon place, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Hines, Rev. H. C., Clinton avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Hirschfield, Edward, 8 Berkeley street, Rochester, N. Y.
- \* Hitch, Mrs. F. D., Associated Charities of Newburgh, Newburgh, N. Y.
- \* Hoag, Miss Julia S., State Board of Charities, Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- Hochstrasser, A. E., Berne, N. Y.
- Hoit, Benton, Bureau of Charities, Albany Business College, Albany, N. Y.
- Hopkins, Mrs. Mary L., Buffalo Orphan Asylum, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* House, Mrs. Jennie R., Erie County Placing Out Agency, Holland, N. Y.
- \* Howland, Henry R., Thomas Asylum for Orphan and Destitute Indian Children, 217 Summer street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Humphrey, Mrs. Wolcott J., New York State School for the Blind, Warsaw, N. Y.
- Hun, Marcus T., Home for Aged Men, 31 Elm street, Albany, N. Y.
- Hurd, Dr. A. W., Buffalo State Hospital for Insane, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Hussey, Edward J., Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 340 Madison avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Husted, Albert N., Home and Training School for Christian Workers, Bureau of Charities and State Normal College, 314 Hamilton street, Albany, N. Y.
- Huyek, William F., New York State School for the Blind, Le Roy, N. Y.
- \* Hyatt, Nathaniel, State Insurance Department, 319 Hudson avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Hynes, Hon. Thomas W., Commissioner of Correction, 1332 Pacific street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \* Jackson, Samuel Macauley, Charity Organisation Society, 692 West End avenue, New York city.
- Jaeckel, Hon. John P., State Commission of Prisons, State Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- \* James, Brother, Professor Christian Brothers Academy, 43 Lodge street, Albany, N. Y.
- Jarrard, George W., Supervisor of the Poor of Schenectady County, 949 Albany street, Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Jenks, Edwin M., State Library, Albany, N. Y.
- Jenkins, Major Walter, Salvation Army, 120-124 West Fourteenth street, New York city.
- \* Jermain, Miss M. C., Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Albany, N. Y.
- Johnson, Addison, State Commission of Prisons, Sing Sing, N. Y.
- Johnson, Walter H., Erie County Poor, 39 Soldier Place, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Johnson, Rev. W. M., Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Cohoes, N. Y.
- Jonsson, David, Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Cohoes, N. Y.
- \* Judd, Wilbur Webster, Journalist, Press-Knickerbocker, 131 North Pearl street, Albany, N. Y.
- Kavanaugh, Mrs. C. H., Fairview Home for Friendless Children, Waterford, N. Y.
- \* Keating, Redmond, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 506 East Eighty-fifth street, New York city.
- \* Kellogg, Paul U., Assistant Editor "Charities," 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.
- Kelly, Edward, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 143 Third street, Troy, N. Y.
- Kengott, Louis J., Mayor's Office, City of Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Kennedy, Mary E., Stenographer Prison Department, 545 First street, Troy, N. Y.
- \* Kerr, Henry D., State Board of Charities, 287 Fourth avenue, New York city.

## 292      THIRD NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES.

- \* Kerr, Mrs. Henry D., Huntington, N. Y.
- Kibbee, Austin S., President House of Shelter, 8 First street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Kieran, Sister Mary P. H., Treasurer, Sanitarium Gabriels, Gabriels, N. Y.
- \* King, Fred A., University Settlement, 184 Eldridge street, New York city.
- \* King, Harvey J., Troy Orphan Asylum, Troy, N. Y.
- Kingsbury, Chas. E., Supervisor of Poor of Schenectady County, 18 Gillespie street, Schenectady, N. Y.
- Kingsbury, F. F., Supervisor of the Poor of Schenectady County, 815 Union street, Schenectady, N. Y.
- \* Kinkead, Rev. T. L., St. Joseph's Home, Peekskill, N. Y.
- \* Kirschmeyer, Louis P., Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 238 Stanton street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Kirkpatrick, J. J., Superintendent of the Poor of Suffolk County, Patchogue, N. Y.
- Kirsch, Rev. J. A. W., Erie County Poor, 280 Hickory street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Klander, Rev. Alexander, Ogdensburgh City Hospital and Orphan Asylum, Clintonville, N. Y.
- \* Knight, Mrs. Gertrude W., Superintendent, Onondaga County Orphan Asylum, 1007 East Genesee street, Syracuse, N. Y.
- \* Knopf, Dr. S. A., Committee on Sanatoria, 16 West Ninety-fifth street, New York city.
- \* Knowles, Charles R., President Fairview Home, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Krach, Oscar, Pastor St. John's Evangelical Lutheran Church, 166 Central avenue, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Kunsmann, Frank, State Board of Charities, 287 Fourth avenue, New York city.
- \* Lalor, Peter A., St. Rose's Settlement, 129 East Seventy-first street, New York city.
- \* Landsberg, Rev. Max, Secretary, Jewish Orphan Asylum of Western New York, Rochester, N. Y.
- \* Landsberg, Mrs. M., United Jewish Charities of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.
- Lansing, J. Townsend, 82 State street, Albany.
- \* Lathrop, Cyrus Clark, State Board of Charities, the Capitol, Albany, N. Y.
- Lathrop, Dr. Earl P., Erie County Poor, 153 Delaware avenue, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Lawrence, Rev. Arthur, Berkshire Industrial Farm, Stockbridge, Mass.
- Lechtrock, Henry M., 287 Fourth avenue, New York city.
- Lee, George C., House of Shelter, 471 Columbia street, Albany, N. Y.
- Leonard, Patrick, Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Lodi street, Syracuse, N. Y.
- Letner, Dr., Holy Rosary Convent, St. Agnes Convent, Sparkill, N. Y.
- Lewis, Mrs., Emanuel Sisterhood, The Netherlands, New York city.
- Lewis, Dr. F. Park, President, New York State School for the Blind, 454 Franklin street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Lincoln, George I., Superintendent, Thomas Asylum for Orphan and Destitute Indian Children, Iroquois, N. Y.
- Lincoln, L. J., Particular Council, Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Nineteenth street and Sixth avenue, Alexander Building, New York city.
- \* Lintner, Mrs. J. Albert, State Charities Aid Association, 96 South Hawk street, Albany, N. Y.
- \* Lippert, Maud S., Vassar College, Fort Plain, N. Y.
- Little, Andrew, Vice-President, Northwestern Dispensary, 17 East Sixty-second street, New York city.
- Livingston, Clarence, East Berne, N. Y.
- Loddell, A. J., East Berne, N. Y.
- Loch, Henry M., Young Men's Hebrew Association, 19 West Ninety-fifth street, New York city.
- \* Long, Edward B., Superintendent of the Poor of Westchester county, 113 Railroad avenue, White Plains, N. Y.
- \* Long, L. L., Superintendent of the Poor of Erie County, 23 West Swan street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \* Loudon, M., Assistant Superintendent, Loudon Hall, Amityville, N. Y.
- \* Love, Rev. A. S., D. D., Pastor Congregational Church, 299 Hamilton street, Albany, N. Y.
- Lyon, R. M., Northwestern Dispensary, 158 West Forty-sixth street, New York city.
- Lyons, John, Berne, N. Y.
- \* MacCutcheon, Mrs. Jane Lee, North Germantown, N. Y.
- \* Macdonald, Dr. A. E., Manhattan State Hospital, 1 Madison avenue, New York city.
- \* Macdonald, Allan R., Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 366 Clinton avenue, Albany, N. Y.

- \*MacFarlane, Dr. Andrew, 196 Washington avenue, Albany, N. Y.
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